DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 179 640 UD 019 969

AUTHOR Kimsey, Peggy Poling; Paynter, Mary Ann
TITLE Family Economic Issues & Public Policy.
INSTITUTION Kentucky Univ., Lexington. Coll. of Home Economics.
PUB DATE Apr 79
NOTE 131p.
AVAILABLE FROM College of Home Economics Development Fund, Erickson Hall, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506 ($5.00)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Course Descriptions; Education; Employment; Energy Conservation; Family Income; *Family Life; Family Planning; Federal Government; Higher Education; *Home Economics; *Home Economics Teachers; Housing; *Participation; *Political Issues; *Public Policy; Social Welfare; Taxes
IDENTIFIERS *Home Economists; Kentucky

ABSTRACT

Emerging from two graduate seminars designed to increase the involvement of home economists in public policy, this publication includes course outlines, models, and papers on selected issues concerning family-related government policy. The structure and requirements of the two seminars, held in 1978 at the University of Kentucky, are described. A number of concerns which Kentucky home economists defined as the most important foci of their profession are listed, including: (1) education and media; (2) health, welfare and development of human capital; (3) family planning; (4) income and employment; (5) taxation; (6) housing; (7) energy resources; and (8) knowledge available to families. Models for increasing the political participation of home economists, for developing public policies related to families, and for evaluating family-related policy are presented. In addition, brief papers are included on the following issues: (1) government subsidization of programs to alleviate child abuse; (2) responsibility for financial support of children with divorced parents; (3) the use of Federal Medicaid funds for abortion; (4) the role of marital status in determining income taxes; (5) the encouragement of intentional communities; (6) the implications of energy conservation on industrial growth and family life; (7) Federal tax credits for energy-saving home improvements; and (8) mandatory retirement. Finally, seminar participants are listed and a bibliography of resources is provided. (GC)

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PEGGY POLING KIMSEY
MARY ANN PAYNTER

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FAMILY ECONOMIC ISSUES & PUBLIC POLICY

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

P. P. Kimsey & M. A. Paynter
Dept of Family Studies
Univ. of Kentucky

SPECIAL THANKS . . .

. . . to Marjorie Stewart, Dean of the College of Home Economics for providing the encouragement and support that permitted us to develop this publication;

. . . to Charlotte Murphy, Cooperative Extension Service, The Pennsylvania State University for consultation and for editing our materials;

. . . to Terry Rothgeb, Associate Professor, Department of Human Environment: Design, College of Home Economics, University of Kentucky for the cover design.

Published by College of Home Economics, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky 40506

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FAMILY ECONOMIC ISSUES & PUBLIC POLICY

PEGGY POLING KIMSEY
MARY ANN PAYNTER

DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY STUDIES

4

APRIL 1979

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY
LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY 40506

COLLEGE OF HOME ECONOMICS
ERIKSON HALL

April 30, 1979

It is my belief that college administrators need to create environments in which faculty and students can explore opportunities for influencing public policy as it effects them and their clientele.

The Home Economics profession, since its formation in 1908, has always strived to provide knowledge and service for improving the quality of life for American families. Drs. Kimsey and Paynter of the Department of Family Studies taught two well coordinated seminars during the summer of 1978. These seminars were not only excellent in content, teaching strategies and student interest but they provided a breakthrough in some heretofore unexplored areas for us.

The graduate students who attended these seminars developed many of the skills and attitudes necessary for public policy involvement. They reviewed and analyzed many areas of potential political issues for families; they developed models for influencing public policy; they compiled research related to particular issues and they proposed strategies for resolving conflicts and securing effective public policies.

As the students strengthened the roles they will assume as action-oriented home economists, they began to plan for the involvement of other professionals. This publication is one way to share their experiences and to provide one vehicle for others to join in this quest for a world where all individuals can enjoy economic and social well-being. I invite your comments.

Most cordially,

Marjorie S. Stewart

Marjorie S. Stewart, Dean
College of Home Economics
University of Kentucky

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

PREFACE

During the summer of 1978 two graduate seminars were conducted at the University of Kentucky related to Family Economics and Public Policy. Support for these experimental seminars had been provided by Department Chairman, John Crosby, and Dean, Marjorie Stewart.

We jointly planned and implemented the two courses. The first course was titled "Family Economic Issues and Public Policy -- The Impacts" and was taught by Paynter. The second course, "Family Economic Issues and Public Policy -- Influencing the Issues", was taught by Kimsey. The seminars were designed to be independent of each other, but at the same time both were aimed toward building a holistic approach for analyzing issues and trying to effect change.

Graduate students were recruited from several areas but emphasis was placed on attracting teachers and Extension home economists. Because of the difficulty off-campus graduate students find in attending regular summer courses, special permission was obtained to schedule each course in a one-week block, meeting from 8:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. In order to meet University requirements, additional work (research papers) was required to be completed outside the time framework of the courses, but within the time frame of the regular eight week summer session. The seminars were especially designed for graduate students in Family Economics and Management, but students from Home Economics Education, Human Development, Family Relations and other related areas were encouraged to participate. The students received three semester hours graduate credit at the completion of each course.

We were most pleased with student growth during those two weeks. That pride and our attempts to encourage home economists and other professionals who work with families to become involved in political, social, and economic issues prompted this publication.

We feel that the seminars and this publication are political acts. Sharing these experiences is the kind of political communication that we hope will result in further growth in the political awareness of home economists. Only the passing of time will reveal the degree of our success.

Peggy Kimsey

Peggy Kimsey, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor

Maryann Paynter

Maryann Paynter, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor

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INTRODUCTION

Although home economists have long espoused their mission of improving home and family life, many of us are often reluctant to take an active part in trying to influence public policies that affect families.

A survey of members of the Kentucky Home Economics Association (Watts 1978) was conducted to determine the extent of political activity and factors related to members' degree of participation. One third of the 662 members responded to the mailed questionnaire which was included in a Legislation Committee Newsletter. The only significant participation reported was consistent voting in local, state and national elections. Although a majority of the respondents contacted public officials for information, attended political meetings and rallies and made some attempt to influence votes, few home economists contacted any government officials through letters, telephone calls, telegrams or personal visits to share information or to influence policy decisions in any way.

Area of employment seemed to relate to the amount of political participation. College and university professors tended to report more political activity than those employed in other educational roles. Teachers in elementary and high schools as well as those in adult education tended to report more activities than home economists in business and industry. The least political activity was reported by those respondents who were employed by the Cooperative Extension Service. KHEA members who were not employed reported less political activity than employed members. Other factors that related positively to political participation were:

1. history of family political participation
2. involvement in community organizations
3. feelings of political efficacy or the belief that political and social change is possible

Results of this study disclosed that most of the 221 responding Kentucky home economists in 1978 exhibited extremely little participation in public policy affairs and had little belief in their ability to bring about change. This situation should motivate educators to look more closely at how we are preparing home economists for very important professional roles.

It seems desirable to increase political involvement of home economists so that their expertise and understanding of the family can be felt in legislation and policies which impact on families. Educators, therefore, must provide information and training related to public policy.

In order to increase the awareness of graduate students and future professionals a process was identified by Kimsey and Paynter to activate student interests and increase skills and knowledge in the area of public policy. The components of this process included (1) identifying the issues, (2) designing models for: (a) increasing political participation of home economists, (b) developing public policy related to families, (c) evaluating public policy related to families and (3) analyzing family economic issues related to public policy. The structure for the seminars incorporated this process.

An attempt was made to simplify semantics by developing definitions for the key concepts used in the seminars. Those definitions are shared here.

Family economics is the study of management through production, distribution, exchange and consumption of resources within the social, economic, and political system to satisfy dynamic family wants and needs.

An issue is a timely controversial question involving beliefs or actions concerning groups of people.

Public policy is the outcome of decisions made by a power system that effects the lives of groups and individuals.

A family is a group of individuals interdependent both economically and emotionally.

The polity is the total network of a particular form or system of government.

The interaction between family and polity is the reciprocal participation and exchange between the two systems. It includes the demands and supports that each system places upon the other.

The course outlines, models, and selected issue papers in this publication are one attempt to establish guidelines for involving home economists in public policy.

SEMINAR STRUCTURE

The structures for the seminars are provided for educators who may wish to teach similar courses or for professional organizations that may wish to conduct workshops or programs in the public policy area. These are not meant to be the Model but rather to serve as guidelines.

Seminar I
FHR 773A, "Family Economic Issues and Public Policy--The Impacts"
June 14-19, 1978, Dr. Maryann Payrter

Course Description

Survey of current family economic issues in the political system; analysis of the impact of issue-related public policies on the well-being of families.

Course Objectives

1. Identify economic and social issues in the political economy and estimate their impact on families.
2. Trace legislative history of current public policy related to family issues.
3. Evaluate research available to support public policy decisions.
4. Explore ideas for developing or changing public policy to meet family needs and to improve family well-being.
5. Identify possible roles of home economists in political participation.

Course Outline and Requirements

Day One:

8:00 - 10:00	Introduction and Overview
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Family Economics, Issues and Impacts Defined
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:45	Discussion of Assignments

Day One (cont.):

1:45 - 3:00	Survey of Variant Family Forms: Is the nuclear family out of date? Guest Speaker: Dr. George Wise, Assistant Professor, Department of Family Studies
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00	Discussion: What research is needed to meet needs of families and to help them attain their desired life styles? What are family professionals doing to influence public policy? Guest Speaker: Dr. John Crosby, Associate Professor, Department of Family Studies

Day Two:

8:00 - 10:00	Issue and Impacts: Limited Family Housing: Where will the family live? A national view Guest Speaker: Dr. Glenda Herman, Kentucky Cooperative Extension Specialist in Housing
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Orientation to reference materials, King Library Resource Person: Ms. Ellen Baxter, Home Economics Library Liaison
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 1:45	Review of bibliographic data for inclusion in project
1:45 - 3:00	Issue and Impacts: Defense of Children: What is the Children's Defense Fund? What are the Issues? Guest Speaker: Dr. Kathy Thornburg, Associate Professor, Department of Family Studies
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00	Library Research

Day Three:

8:00 - 10:00	Issue and Impacts: Family Roles and Division of Labor Class Discussion of Reading Assignments; Feeber and Birnbaum, "New Home Economics", Journal of Consumer Research, Vol. 4, June 1977; and Hunt, Morton, "Making a Living Versus Making a Home", Redbook Magazine, April 1978.
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	King Library - Orientation to Government Documents Resource Person: Ms. Susan Csaky, Government Documents Librarian
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 3:00	Issue and Impacts: Limited Resources for Energy: How will the Family find Energy Sources? Guest Speaker: Ms. Sandra Smith, Kentucky Cooperative Extension Specialist in Energy
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00	Tracing legislative history of one family economic issue King Library, Government Documents

Day Four:

8:00 - 10:00	Complete library assignments. Prepare brief presentation reviewing significant legislation.
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Presentation by class members on history of policy-making for current issues
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 5:00	Conferences on individual projects

Day Five:

8:00 - 10:00	Issue and Impacts: Electronic funds transfer and the Family: Is the computer going to control the family? Film: "The Future is in Your Hands", Graduate School of Banking, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Day Five (cont.)

10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Discussion: "Saving the Family", Newsweek, May 15, 1978.
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 3:00	Evaluation of Issues: Who, How and Why? What's our professional role?
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00	Summary and Evaluation of Seminar Final Examination

Course Requirements FHR 773A

1. Moderate or coordinate one class activity -- submit brief evaluation (10%)
2. Oral Report -- history of legislation related to one issue -- written summary (10%)
3. Read and participate in discussions (10%)
4. Evaluate class -- written, approximately one page (5%)
5. Final Examination (15%)
6. Individual Project (50%)
   a. Social, economic and political history of issue and related public policy
   b. Rationale for inclusion as a family economics issue
   c. History of impact on families related to public policy
   d. Related research for public policy decisions
   e. Needed research for deciding public policy

Seminar II
FHR 773B, "Family Economic Issues and Public Policy -- Influencing the Issues"
June 20-24, 1978, Dr. Peggy Kimsey

Course Description

Exploring the involvement of families and educators with public policy as a means of realizing satisfying lifestyles; development of models for influencing policies related to economic well being of individuals and families.

Course Objectives

The student will:

1. develop knowledge and skills pertinent for professionals working in the area of linkage between policy and families
2. identify ways individuals and families can influence public policies
3. analyze patterns of interaction between families and the polity
4. analyze policy as a resource for maximizing the family's resources
5. develop a model for analyzing public policy issues

Course Outline and Requirements

Day One:

8:00 - 10:00	Introduction and Overview Defining: a. family economics b. issues c. public policy
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Defining: a. the family b. the polity c. interaction between families and polity
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:30	Political Participation: Is it a Goal?

Day One (cont.)

2:45 - 5:00	Political Participation of Kentucky Home Economists Guest Speaker: Jacqueline Kaye Watts, M.S. "Political Participation Among Kentucky Home Economists", 1978 University of Kentucky Graduate

Day Two:

8:00 - 10:00	What is Constructive Participation?
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Lobbying as a Means of Influencing Policies
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 5:00	Models for Increasing Political Participation

Day Three:

8:00 - 10:00	Planned Social Change
10:00 - 10:30	Break
10:30 - 12:00	The Role of Educators in Influencing Public Policy Guest Speaker: Lt. Governor Thelma Stovall, State of Kentucky
12:00 - 1:30	Lunch
1:30 - 5:00	International Family Policy Statements

Day Four:

8:00 - 10:00	Obstacles to Participation "Feelings of Helplessness" Guest Speaker: Dr. Sam Quick Kentucky Cooperative Extension Specialist in Family Life
10:00 - 10:15	Break
10:15 - 12:00	Conferences on Individual Projects
12:00 - 1:00	Lunch
1:00 - 2:30	Women as Change Agents Guest Speaker: Patricia G. Ellis, County Commissioner, Fayette County, Kentucky

Day Four (cont.)

2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 5:00	Policies Related to Economic Well Being of Families a. Development of Policies b. Evaluation of Policies

Day Five:

8:00 - 3:00	Individual and Group Work
3:00 - 5:00	Reports of Models for Developing or Evaluating Policy

Course Requirements FHR 773B

1. Model for Increasing Political Participation. (10%)
2. Model for Developing a Policy or Evaluating a Policy. (15%)
3. Major Project. (75%)

Explanation of Major Project: It will consist of a plan for influencing a major issue related to the economic well being of individuals and families. Specifics will be finalized in conferences between instructor and the student.

DEFINING THE ISSUES

As a part of the final examination for the first public policy seminar students were asked to list the most important current issues in family economics. The following is an attempt to compile their suggestions in a simple framework. Most public policy decisions must first deal with these questions in relation to content:

A. Should this be a right of the individual and/or family?
B. Who should provide funds or appropriations to initiate and maintain programs mandated by policies?
C. If control of this area is necessary, should it be public or private?
D. If it requires government control at what level should it originate--local, state or national?

1. EDUCATION AND MEDIA

- educational system effective for producing citizens competent to function in today's world
- education related to:
  a. career preparation
  b. health
  c. nutrition
  d. sex
  e. marriage
  f. parenting
  g. financial management
  h. home production
  i. consumption
  j. product safety
  k. energy use
- competency testing
- voucher systems
- life-long learning programs
- limited television advertising for children
- television free of advertising

2. HEALTH, WELFARE AND DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN CAPITAL

- adequate physical and mental health services regardless of income or wealth
- prevention of human abuse and neglect
- integration of delivery systems for health care and services
- family's rights to privacy
- equal opportunity rights
- sex and racial discrimination
- food additives or processes which may endanger human growth and maintenance of life
- rights of children, parents, women and the elderly
- rights of victims of discrimination
- rights of citizens in relation to activities of government officials
- rights of citizens in relation to business and industry
- right to life or death
- right to artificial life extension

3. FAMILY PLANNING

- rights of individuals in determining family size

- funding for appropriate freedom of choice measures
- quality control of child care programs
- child custody
- child support
- adoption standards

4. INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

- adequate income for all families
- underemployment and unemployment
- job opportunities free from discrimination
- flex-time, part-time and/or job-sharing programs
- mandatory retirement
- government as employer of last resort
- homemakers' work reflected in social security program
- rehabilitation of displaced homemakers

5. TAXATION

- taxpayer input in regard to allocation of taxes
- criteria for tax exemptions
- criteria for property assessments
- tax structure for population control
- tax structure discrimination in relation to marital status, family size and income and occupational status
- responsibility of funding business and industry regulation

6. HOUSING

- decent housing for all individuals and families
- development and enforcement of housing codes
- electrical safety codes
- energy efficient building regulations
- housing costs
- price ceilings on building materials
- housing for the elderly and severely handicapped persons
- intentional or planned communities

7. ENERGY RESOURCES

- economic growth and supply of raw materials
- effective use of scarce energy resources
- development of energy sources and technology
- government or industry incentives for family energy conservation measures

8. KNOWLEDGE OF FAMILIES

- knowledge related to families for use in effective public policy decisions
- data necessary for understanding the economic behavior of American families
- support and evaluation of such research

MODELS FOR INCREASING POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF HOME ECONOMISTS

As a result of the concern raised by the Watts (1978) study students created models or plans of action to increase the political participation of home economists. Graduate students worked in teams and developed models for specific groups of professional home economists within the state of Kentucky. The over-all design of the models is applicable to other areas of the country.

For example, the groups selected were home economics teachers, Cooperative Extension Home Economists, Kentucky Home Economists in Business and the Kentucky Home Economics Association. Similar groups exist in all other states. Beyond the development of a model to increase the political participation, was the task of communicating that model or plan to the appropriate person within that group or organization. The models were sent with letters of explanation to the president of the Kentucky Home Economics Association, to the State supervisor of Home Economics teachers, to the chairperson of Home Economists in Business and to appropriate Cooperative Extension personnel. The models were well received and nearly all of the graduate students received positive feedback from the organizations.

The major contributors to this section were:

Model I	Roma Bradley and Connie Minch
Model II	Deborah Ballou and Diane Dossett
Model III	Marjie Foust and Margaret Ponder
Model IV	Mary Davis and Elizabeth Jeffers

Several months later, impacts of the proposed models are noticeable in contents of in-service training, association programs and requests for speakers. A summary of the four models follows.

MODEL I

INCREASING POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF MEMBERS OF KENTUCKY HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION

The following plan of action is proposed to the Kentucky Home Economics Association (KHEA) to increase the political participation of the Commonwealth's home economists:

A. Focus for the KHEA annual meeting: Political Participation and How to Participate Effectively.

B. Develop a newsletter or an addition to the current news publication dealing with national and state legislation involving the family.

C. Increase annual dues to include the subscription fee for "AHEA's Washington Dateline".

D. Recognize annually members who have effectively influenced family legislation.

E. Propose updating college and university home economics curriculum to include course work in political involvement.

F. Sponsor area workshops in political participation for Kentucky Association of Home Economics Teachers, Kentucky Association of Extension Home Economists, and Kentucky Home Economists in Business.

G. Employ a professional lobbyist to the Kentucky legislature.

H. Devise a plan so that home economists in each legislative district meet annually with their local senators and representatives.

MODEL II

INCREASING POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF KENTUCKY HOME ECONOMISTS IN BUSINESS

This model will be presented to the President and Program Planning Committee of the Kentucky Chapter of Home Economists in Business (HEIB).

Step #1 Present a program on issues concerning home economists and examples of participation that can influence these issues at a regular HEIB meeting.

Step #2 Establish a Public Policy Committee which will have three functions:

A. Add a regular column to be called "Issues & Concerns" to the Kentucky HEIB Newsletter. This would provide current information on issues, present a brief impact statement on a single issue each month, and suggest action on issues.

B. Present a committee report at each monthly meeting on progress within the committee and to summarize issues, impacts and action from the newsletter and to encourage discussion and participation.

C. Within the committee, appoint one contact person for each subject matter area of home economics to (1) check validity of information, (2) serve as a resource person for information on issues and (3) provide ideas and input concerning impacts on the family.

Step #3 Conduct a workshop on political participation skills for members at the annual HEIB meeting (part of AHEA week).

Step #4 Submit monthly to the AHEA/KHEA Public Policy Committee Chairperson, a copy of the Issues & Concerns portion of the HEIB monthly newsletter.

MODEL III

INCREASING POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF EXTENSION HOME ECONOMISTS

PURPOSE - To make agents aware of the need for more political participation and methods of becoming involved.

I. Agents' Regional Association Meetings:

Proposed Agenda for the Meeting:

1. "Issues Concerning the Family"
2. "Current Legislative Activities"
3. "How to Affect Legislation Before It Affects You"
4. "Lobbying -- What Is It?"
5. "What's to Come" - State Association Meeting on "How to Get Involved".

II. State Association of Extension Home Economists Meeting:

Proposed Agenda for the Meeting:

1. "You as a Catalyst for Greater Citizen Political Participation"
2. "Current Legislation Affecting the Family"
3. "How to Lobby Effectively"
4. "Family Concerns and Public Policy"
5. "Your Role and Responsibility in Public Policy"

MODEL IV

INCREASING POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF HOME ECONOMISTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The home economist in secondary education is in a unique position to encourage political participation, as well as cooperate with others in forming public policy. (see Figure 1) Approaches for influencing public policy include:

I. Government Policy

- A. Attend and encourage attendance of community members at local, state, and federal assemblies.
- B. Vote and encourage voting in all elections.
- C. Write position papers/letters to key policy personnel.
- D. Lobby collectively with others who share the same political views.
- E. Run or encourage other qualified persons to run for political office.

II. Community Policy

- A. Attend and encourage others to attend meetings and community councils.
- B. Vote and encourage voting in all local elections.
- C. Involve members of community on an advisory board to provide input into home economics curriculum.
- D. Invite members of community to speak in class.
- E. Volunteer to teach/speak to community groups.

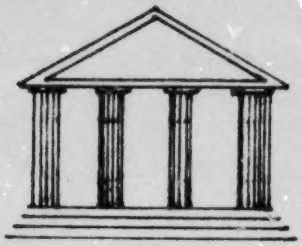
III. School Policy

- A. Attend and encourage others to attend meetings of school board, PTA or PTO.
- B. Interest students in extra-curricular involvement.
- C. Sponsor student organizations.
- D. Encourage students to run for school and organizational offices.
- E. Qualify for administrative roles in the school system through additional educational training.

IV. Professional Policy

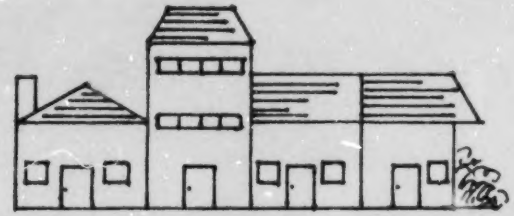
- A. Participate and encourage others to participate in local, state, and national home economics organizations.
- B. Participate and encourage others to become involved in organizational elections.
- C. Provide information for those who wish to lobby in the interest of the organization.
- D. Attend organizational meetings.
- E. Write letters to officers of professional organizations as well as leaders in the field.

GOVERNMENT



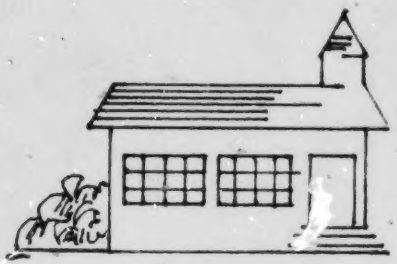
- Attend local, state and federal assemblies
- Vote in all elections
- Write positive papers and letters
- Lobby collectively
- Run for political office

COMMUNITY

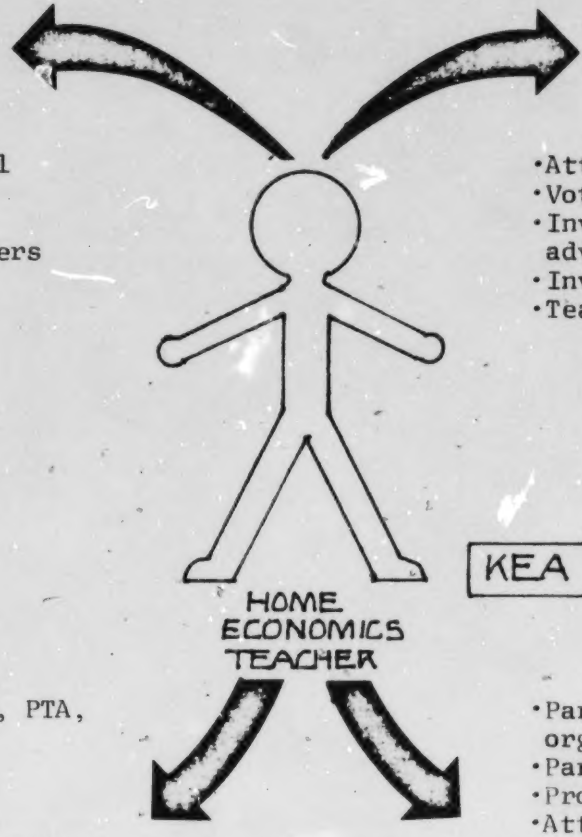


- Attend meetings of community councils
- Vote in local elections
- Involve community members on an advisory board
- Invite community members to speak
- Teach/speak to community groups

SCHOOLS



- Attend meeting of school board, PTA, or PYO
- Interest students in school involvement
- Sponsor student organizations
- Encourage students to run for offices
- Qualify for administrative school positions



PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

AHEA

KEA

AVA

HEEA

- Participate in home economics organizations
- Participate in organization elections
- Provide information for lobbyists
- Attend organizational meetings
- Write letters to leaders in the field

Figure 1. Political Participation of Home Economists in Secondary Education

MODELS FOR DEVELOPING PUBLIC POLICIES RELATED TO FAMILIES

The family is the basic unit of our society. The rights of this unit need to be protected by policies and legislation to insure equal opportunity for the economic and social well being of all families and all family members. A long history of inequality exists among families in the United States and continues to the present times. The basic objective of the models proposed herein is to bring the level of living and the quality of life into a better balance for all people. The dignity of each individual must be recognized and the worth of each person realized. All family members should have equal opportunity for self-determination through elimination of discrimination of all forms.

The two models for developing policy related to families that are presented in this section place emphasis on economic well being and on quality of life. The major contributors to Model V were Diane Dossett and Connie Minch; to Model VI were Paula Bradley Dills and Marjie Foust. Model V is a framework for designing policy and legislation to enhance the quality of family life and Model VI focuses on the interaction between the family and other environments. Both models are original creations.

MODEL V

DEVELOPING POLICIES RELATED TO FAMILIES

Economic, social and political systems interact with the family to bring about changes necessary to reach the objectives of family public policy. The political system is the authority of the legislative, executive and judicial branches of government to design and enforce formal public policy affecting the family. The social system encompasses the cultural traditions, mores and values of families within the United States. The economic system is the process by which goods and services are produced, distributed and marketed. Family public policy in each of the three systems should be designed to meet family needs. Family economic needs incorporate those resources necessary for the family to function interdependently with the environment at an adequate level of living. (see Figure 2)

Family values affect the way a family perceives its needs for adequate living. A value is a concept of a desireable which influences selection from available choices. The following categories of needs used in this model for family public policy are all considered components of family economic well being.

Physiological needs are the basics of food, shelter, clothing and medical care which must be obtained for survival and maintenance of the family. Every family member has a fundamental right for physiological needs to be met adequately. Action could be taken through expansion and more efficient administration of:

- Federal food programs including food stamps and free meal programs.
- Federal housing programs including rent subsidies and loans to purchase or rehabilitate housing.
- Federal medical programs such as Medicare and Medicaid.
- Direct payments to families such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children.

Educational skills contribute to the competencies necessary for families to function in society. Each family member should have the basic right to quality education. Steps must be taken to assure an equal educational opportunity for all persons regardless of race, sex, age, religion, or marital status. Education for family living should focus on the areas of vocation training, consumer education and basic life skills.

Management is a process by which families may obtain various levels of satisfaction from the resources at their disposal. Political, social and economic institutions are sources which may help families achieve a satisfying life style.

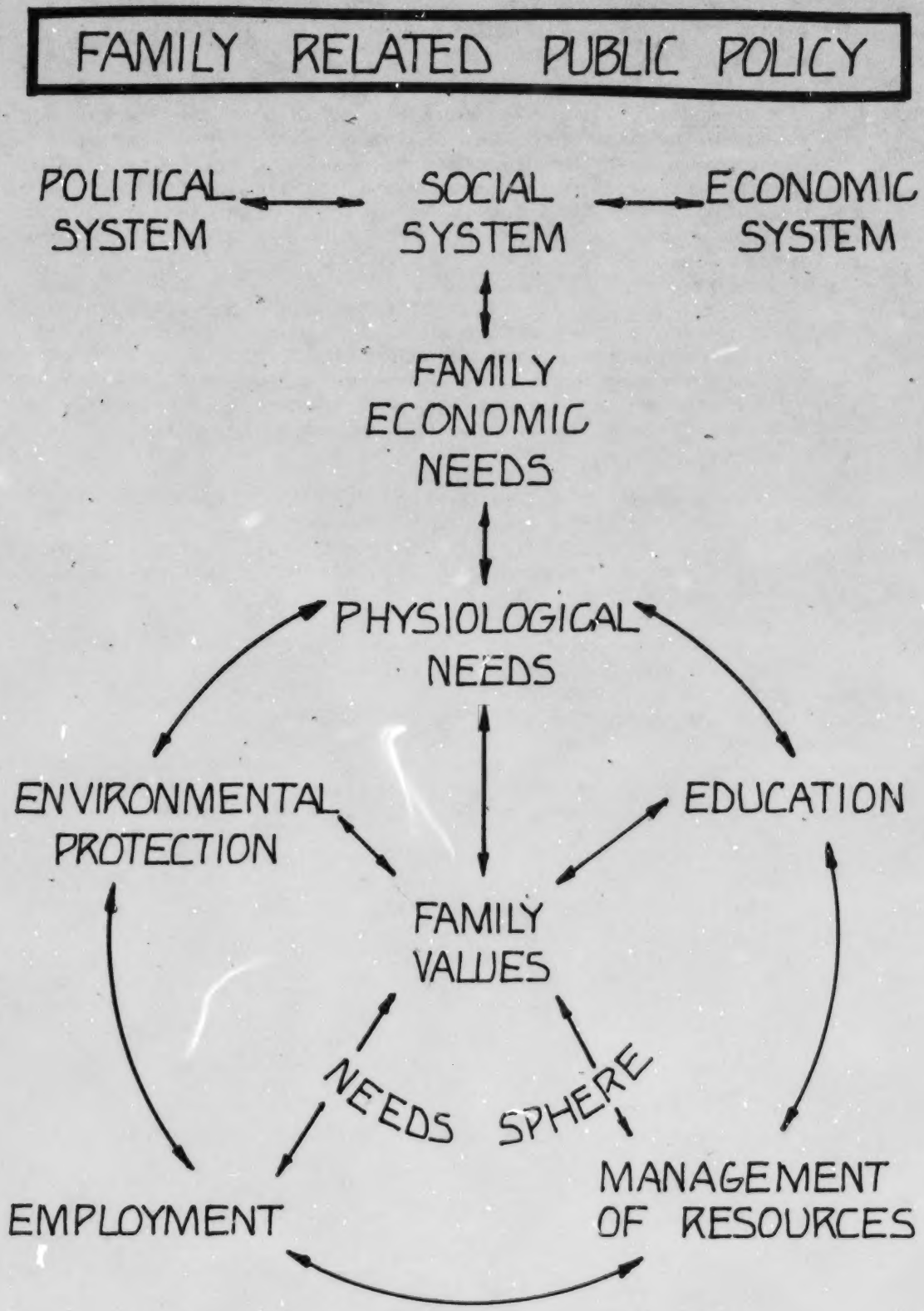


Figure 2. Components of a Family-Related Public Policy

Employment opportunities must exist for most families to acquire the resources necessary to meet economic needs. Government and private enterprise must work together to eliminate all forms of discrimination in employment opportunities and practices. Enforcement of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act and effective implementation of legislation creating training programs is necessary to insure adequate employment for families.

Environmental protection is essential to preserve the natural resources necessary to meet the economic needs of future generations. Government, private enterprise and individual consumers must cooperate to establish the protection and management of our natural resources as a priority need of our nation. Some of the areas to be considered in implementing natural resource management are: air, water, land, minerals and other raw materials.

In the proposed model of family related public policy, the social, political and economic systems must cooperate in their efforts to meet family economic needs. Each component must take at least partial responsibility for eliminating inequality in the levels of living of United States families.

Each family has economic needs which were divided into proposed categories of physiological needs, education, management of resources, employment and environmental protection. Physiological needs are ranked as the most important of family economic needs, those things which must be acquired before other needs are usually considered. The other four are categories of general family economic need seen as necessary to equalize the quality of life among families. All of these family economic needs are inter-related and reinforce one another.

Family values is in the center of the "Needs Sphere" of the proposed model. Each family should view these needs as important and internalize them in their family value system. This inter-organization will help to assure each family an equal opportunity to attain an adequate level of living and generate self-renewal.

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MODEL VI

DEVELOPING POLICIES RELATED TO FAMILIES

The family's interaction with the extended environments of a particular culture can best be explained by the conceptual framework of Gross, Crandall and Knoll (1973). This framework deals with the interaction of the family and its individuals with other environments.

According to the World Population Planning Council the goal of a family policy is to "improve levels of living and the quality of life of the people" (A Report on Bucharest, 1974). In order to accomplish this goal, we must recognize that natural resources are finite. Technology therefore must develop and expand along with a concern for future generations.

The relationship of the economy, the political system, and the social network can be illustrated by the management system developed by Deacon and Firebaugh (1975). The family is a micro-system which interacts in a reciprocal fashion with a macro-system. Both of these systems are affected by and affect technology.

Therefore, since the family can be considered as the basic unit of society, it should be protected by appropriate legislation and preserved by policies which improve the quality of life.

The following model identifies components which should be considered when developing any public policy that affects individuals and families. See Figure 3 for a simplified model.

I. Population concerns

As average life expectancy increases and mortality rate decreases, population distribution of a country becomes of greater importance.

A. Growth factor
B. Distribution (urban-rural)
C. Reduction of mortality rate
D. Reduction of morbidity
E. Immigration factor
F. Reproduction
G. Family size

II. Legal responsibilities for special segments of society

Some groups merit special consideration because of their specific limitations. Both the family and the government share responsibility for the care and protection of these groups.

A. Unborn
B. Children
C. Aged
D. Physically, mentally, or emotionally disabled

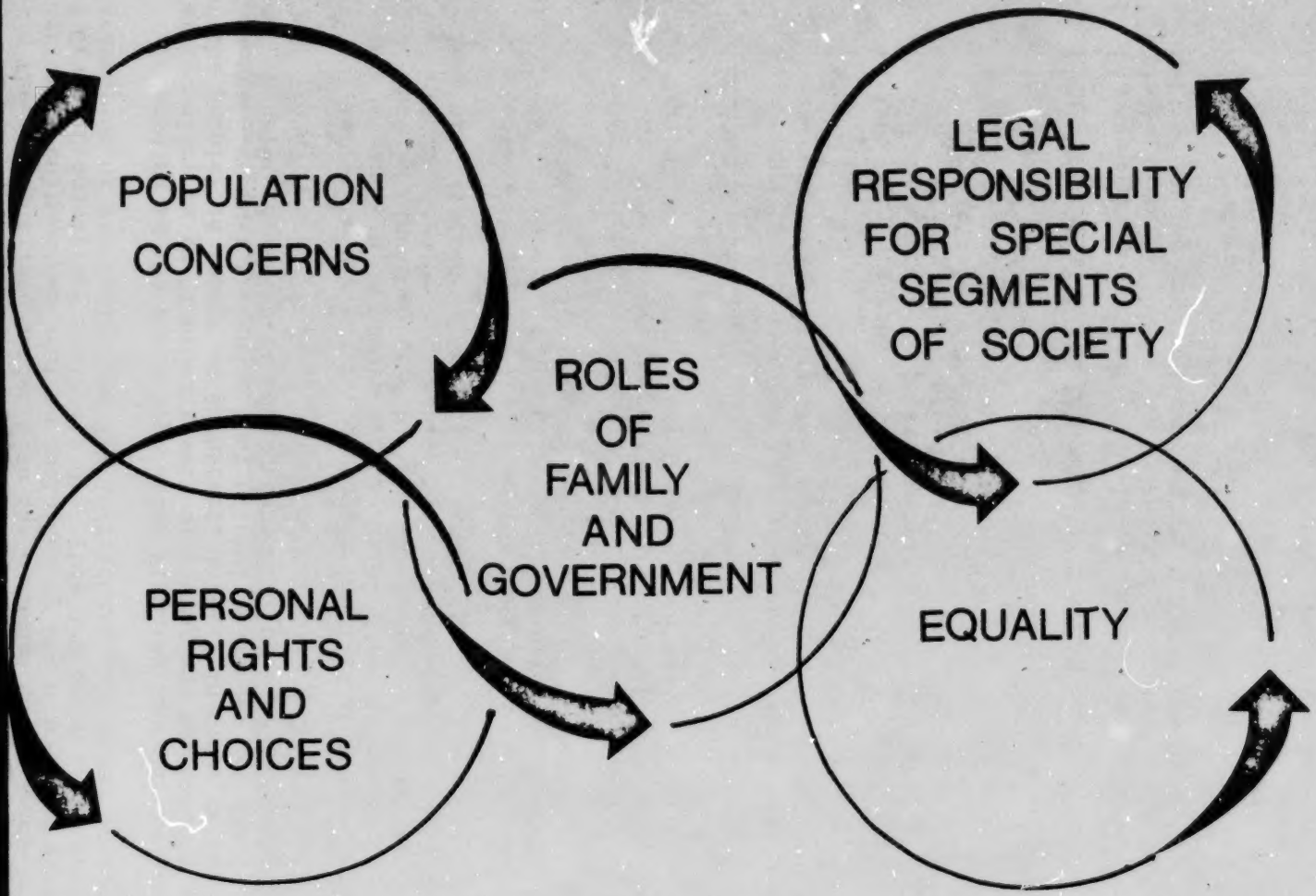

Figure 3. Basic Components of Family Related Public Policy

III. Equality

"Equal status of men and women in the family and in society improves the overall quality of life" (A Report on Bucharest). The Constitution guarantees that all people shall have equality.

A. Men
B. Women
C. Children
D. Minorities

IV. Personal rights and choice

For the quality of life to improve, American people must be guaranteed certain personal rights and freedom of choice.

A. Marriage
   1. forms
   2. minimum age
   3. termination
B. Singlehood
C. Political Choices
D. Economic Choices
E. Lifestyle
F. Education

V. Recommendations for implementing this model

Women and men should be encouraged to become involved at all stages of all levels in the planning and implementation policies related to family.

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MODELS FOR EVALUATING FAMILY RELATED PUBLIC POLICY

The concept of having input during the developmental stage of legislation is certainly the ideal. However, to be able to analyze proposed and present legislation is also of utmost importance. Legislation must be evaluated to determine if the necessary components are included, if the impact on families will be positive or negative and if the means of implementation are appropriate.

Competencies in evaluating legislation related to families could increase the political involvement of home economists. It could help Representatives and Legislative Research Committees identify them as leaders. If they develop skills of evaluating legislation and made these skills known to the appropriate persons, they might well be in prime positions to make impacts on legislation before legislation makes impacts on individuals and families.

The major contributors in this section were:

Model VII	Deborah Ballou and Mary Davis
Model VIII	Roma Bradley and Peggy Powell
Model IX	Elizabeth Jeffers and Margaret Ponder

There were few references or guidelines available for these students to develop models for evaluating family related legislation. Nevertheless, it is hoped that their benchmark work will motivate others to continue strengthening these models.

MODEL VII

EVALUATING FAMILY RELATED LEGISLATION

The following components are essential parts of evaluating family related legislation. This model (see Figure 4) provides a series of steps for evaluating legislation.

I. Assumption

National family legislation should have implications for enhancing the well-being of all families.

II. Definitions

Key words should be defined as to specific meaning in all such legislation; for example, family, resource, policy or family economics.

III. Eligibility

A. Should include all families living within the jurisdiction of such legislation and
B. all families whose special needs are not currently being met.

IV. Services to be considered

A. Direct
   1. housing
   2. physical and mental health
   3. nutrition
   4. social services
   5. special provisions for elderly
   6. financial support
   7. education
   8. child daycare
   9. special provisions for needy children
   10. provisions for handicapped
   11. legal aid

B. Supportive Services to be considered
   1. transportation
   2. training programs
   3. facilities
   4. research and development
   5. planning and coordinating
   6. administration
   7. monitoring and evaluation

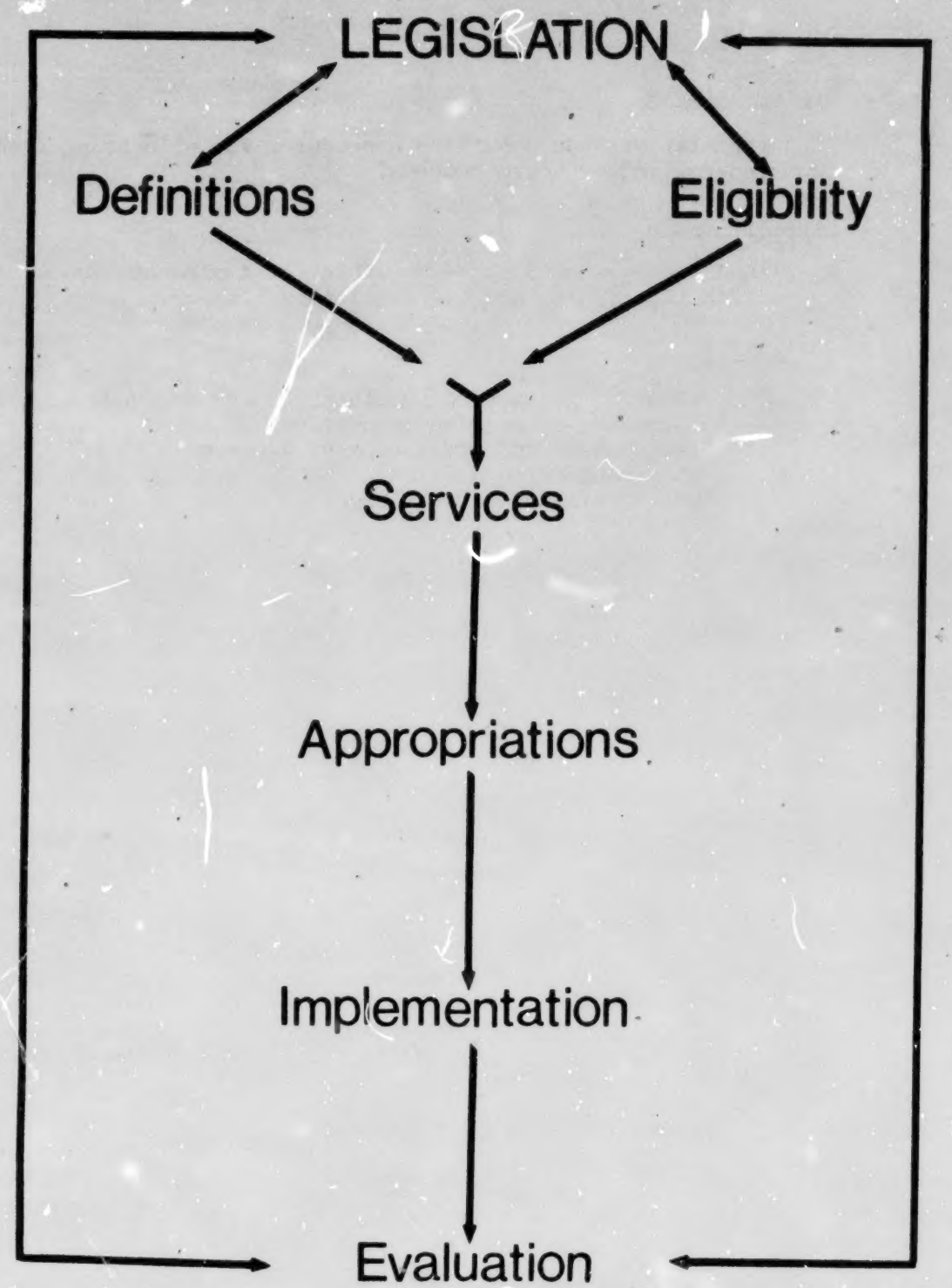

Figure 4. A Model for Evaluating Family Legislation

V. Appropriations

Such legislation should outline procedures for allocating funds from federal and/or state budgets.

VI. Implementation

A defined agency should be responsible for implementation within a specific time frame, and for regulatory actions.

VII. Evaluation

A. Evaluation process to regulate the use of funds
B. Information-generating properties
C. Effectiveness and efficiency of program
D. Error-changing capacities
E. Level of citizen satisfaction

References

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MODEL VIII

EVALUATING FAMILY RELATED LEGISLATION

I. Introduction

Evaluative tools on public policy are difficult to develop because they deal with human beings. Problems of evaluating public policy can be complicated by vague goals and lack of alternatives.

There are two broad types of evaluation. The first, process evaluation, is mainly administrative monitoring. Any program must be monitored regarding the integrity of its financial transactions and accounting system. A component of process evaluation is progress reports aimed at determining the need for possible administrative changes in the program. In sum, process evaluation addresses the question: Given the existence of a program, is it being run honestly and administered efficiently?

A second type of evaluation can be called outcome evaluation, more familarly known as cost/benefit analysis. Although both the inputs and outcomes of the program require measurements, the toughest problem is deciding on and measuring the desired outcomes.

II. Public Policy Components:

1. A particular object or set of objects
2. Desired course of events
3. Selected line of action
4. Declaration of intent
5. Implementation of intent

Policy may be conceived as an identifiable decision and action in a problem situation to achieve a desired end. It encompasses most of what people and institutions do. When policy arises from interest groups, it is usually termed private policy.

Not all problems of society can be solved by private policy. When policy emerges from many individuals and group interests through compromises under representative government it is public policy.

Public policy includes laws, statutes, statements, rules and decisions made that affect our lives. For public policy to become law, it must first go through the legislative process. A bill must include a title, an enacting clause and a body of provisions to be enacted. Therefore, an evaluation tool must look at each part of the bill to determine the effects the legislation will have on the family unit. (See Figure 5 for parallels between legislation and public policy.)

LEGISLATION	•	PUBLIC POLICY
TITLE		
ENACTING CLAUSE		
BODY		
SHORT TITLE	. . . . .	OBJECTIVE
DEFINITIONS	. . . . .	DEFINITIONS
BASIC PROVISIONS		
MAIN PROVISIONS	. . . . .	LINE OF ACTION
SUBORDINATE PROVISION	. . . . .	DECLARATION OF INTENT
PROCEDURAL PROVISION	. . . . .	TIME TABLE
DETAILS	. . . . .	IMPLEMENTATION
PENALTIES	. . . . .	NOT IMPLEMENTING ON SCHEDULE
TEMPORARY PROVISIONS	. . . . .	ELIGIBILITY
APPROPRIATION	. . . . .	AGENCY OR FUNDS (IF PRESENT)
EMERGENCY CLAUSE	. . . . .	TIME TABLE

Figure 5. Legislation and Its Counterpart in Public Policy

III. Summary

Legislation and policy analysis and evaluation are based on the ability to affect:

1. Justice and fairness to the economic and social well-being of all families affected
2. Time lag and adaptability
3. The affect extraneous variables have on family policy or legislation
4. Procedural costs
5. Size of groups that must agree
6. Information generating properties
7. Error correcting capacities of the decision making arrangements

(See Figure 6 for a model for a functional system evaluation).

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Problems of Theory in Policy Analysis, Lexington, Massachusetts, D. C. Heath and Company, 1976.

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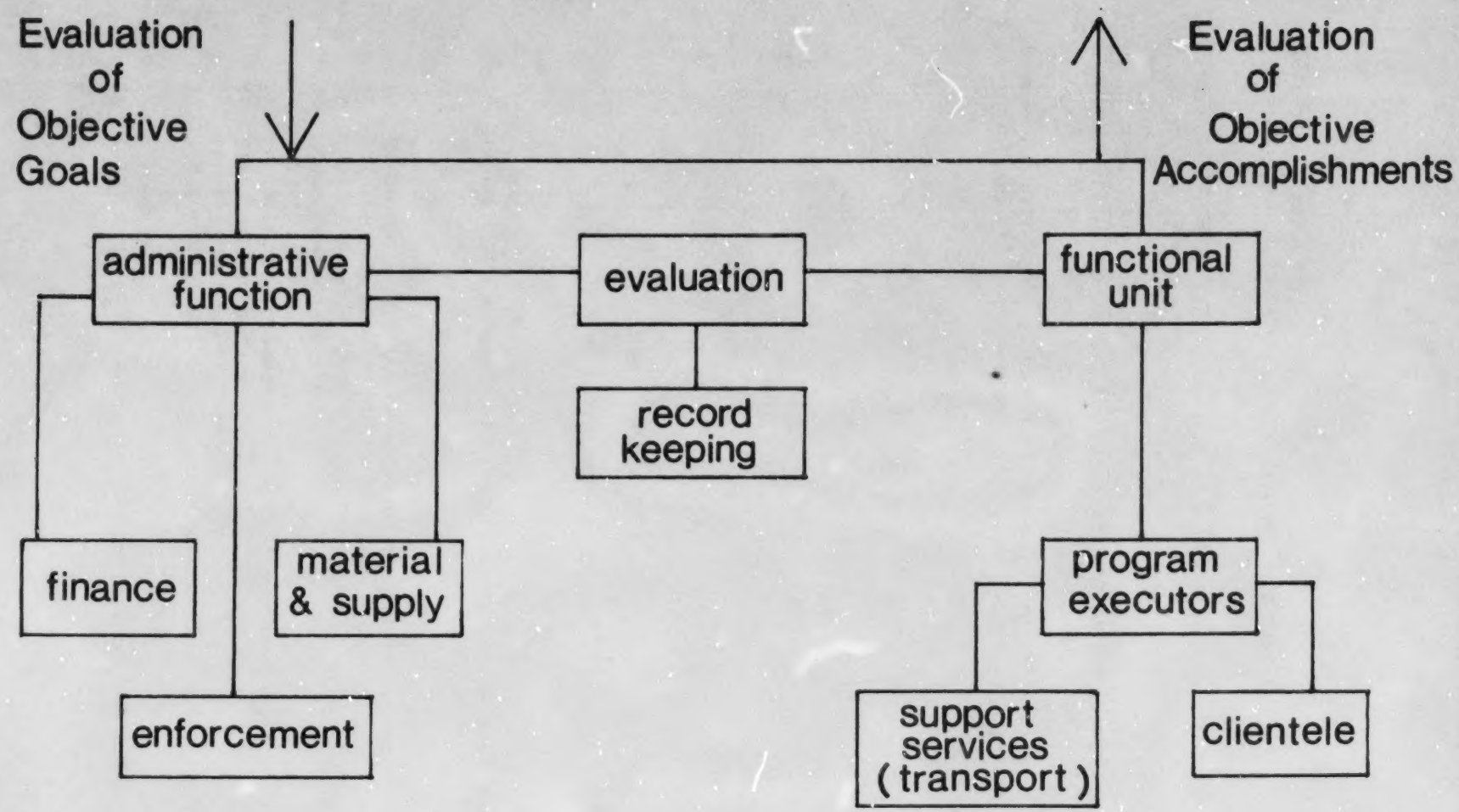

Figure 6. A Model for Functional System Evaluation

MODEL IX

EVALUATING LEGISLATION RELATED TO INDIVIDUALS AND FAMILIES

Declaration of Purpose

The following guidelines furnish criteria by which all legislation concerning the quality of individual and family life could be judged. All legislation, present and future, should aim to improve the quality of individual and family life throughout the entire life-cycle. Such legislation will provide for all regardless of socio-economic level, race or creed within the legal boundaries of the United States of America.

I. Function of Legislation

Legislation should address itself to demonstrated needs of individuals and families.

The function of legislation should be judged by the following criteria:

Legislation should

1. state the intended purpose
2. define an implementation procedure
3. list services, both direct and supportive, that are required to meet the needs of individual or family groups addressed. It should include, but not be limited to, the following areas of direct and supportive services:

    A. Education
    B. Social Services
    C. Legal Services
    D. Planning, Coordination, and Technical Assistance
    E. Research and Development
    F. Monitoring and Evaluating

II. Objectives

Legislation should state specific objectives. The over-all intent of the objectives should be to improve the quality of life for individuals and families throughout the life-cycle.

III. Eligibility

Legislation should be examined to identify those groups or individuals for which it is intended and make provisions to reach all such individuals or groups.

IV. Implementation

Legislation should name an appropriate body designed to administer the comprehensive plan. The comprehensive plan should include the following areas, as appropriate:

A. Personnel
   1. Numbers
   2. Qualifications
   3. Location
B. Physical facilities
C. Training programs
D. Time period for implementation
E. Funding:
   1. Amounts
   2. Sources
F. Monitoring
G. Research and development
H. Needs assessment to determine specific audience
I. A plan to guide inter-agency or inter-state cooperation
J. Method for disseminating information
K. Evaluation

V. Evaluation

Legislation should provide a plan for an evaluating its effectiveness. The authority for corrective provisions should be included within the legislation if, within the course of evaluation, it is determined any component has not reached the stated objectives.

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SELECTED ISSUES

The issues presented in this section were selected because of their timeliness and appropriate relationship to economics of the family. The major contributors to the issue papers were:

Issue I	Phyllis Shippy
Issue II	Roma Bradley
Issue III	Diane Dossett
Issue IV	Paula Bradley Dills
Issue V	Mary Gjermo Wallace
Issue VI	Elizabeth Jeffers
Issue VII	Peggy Powell
Issue VIII	Barbara McAllister

Other topics explored during the seminars were credit, higher education, sex discrimination, universal product code, social security, tenants rights, food additives, child care services and privacy. Additional issues which might be appropriate for future consideration were identified earlier in this publication and included under these broad categorical headings: education, media, health, welfare, development of human capital, family planning, income, employment, taxation, housing, energy resources and knowledge of families.

The positions stated in the issue papers do not reflect the philosophy of the College of Home Economics nor the University of Kentucky. The authors and graduate students take full responsibility for the stances taken on these issues.

ISSUE I

SHOULD THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT SUBSIDIZE PROGRAMS TO ALLEVIATE CHILD ABUSE?

Social, Economic, and Political History

Child abuse has existed through the centuries. As long as man has had children, he has considered them his possessions and, as such, they have been expected to obey parental commands. Conventional wisdom tells us, "Spare the rod and spoil the child." Where does punishment end and abuse begin? We know that infanticide has been practiced in some form in most cultures.

One of the first recorded cases of societial intervention is an abuse case in the United States was in New York City in the year 1875. A church group found a child chained to a bed. The child was being beaten regularly. The only way that the concerned people could obtain help for the child was from the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. Through the help of this agency, the child was eventually rescued and placed in an adequate environment. The group working in her behalf then formed the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children (Kempe and Helfer, 1972).

The city of Buffalo in Erie County, New York, founded The Children's Aid Society and Children's Hospital in 1873. This isolated area has long been working "to prevent cruelty to children and to enforce by all lawful means the laws relating to or in any way affecting children; to protect children in their own homes and elsewhere against cruelty and neglect and the effects of vice, crime and degrading or improper surroundings" (Thomson, et al., 1971). This Society has worked through the years in behalf of children and has developed many guidelines to be used in helping battered children and families. This approach needs to be extended throughout the United States.

At the national level, little has been done to protect children. The Social Security Act of 1932 provided for children of deceased parents. In 1962 a concerned group of people began to look at child abuse from an interdisciplinary viewpoint. This included child abuse from the perspective of the social worker, physician, attorney, and judge (Kempe and Helfer, 1972). It was not until 1974 that federal law established The National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect. Public Law 93-247 designates funds to study the problem and to bring relief to battered children. This was the first time that federal funds were made available. "There can be little doubt that the abuse and neglect of children are now significant issues for both policy and science. The enactment of legislation creating the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect is testimony to this development." (Garbarino, 1977)

Generally, even discussion of child abuse has been taboo, and government has maintained a hands-off policy. There seems to be an unwritten law that what happens between parents and children is no one else's business. However, as horror stories of extreme child abuse reach the

news media, there appears to be an increase in public awareness. There has also been a change in the outlook of professionals who used to consider abuse a sign of pathological origin. Actually, less than ten percent of child abusers are psychotic. In seventy-five percent of the cases, children can be returned to their parents after the parents receive education and help (Kempe and Helfer, 1972).

Defining and Considering Elements of Child Abuse

The definition of abuse in Public Law 93-247, Section 3 is the following: For purposes of this Act the term 'child abuse and neglect' means the physical or mental injury, sexual abuse, negligent treatment or maltreatment of a child under the age of eighteen by a person who is responsible for the child's welfare under circumstances which indicate that the child's health or welfare is harmed or threatened thereby, as determined in accordance with regulations prescribed by the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare. Another definition of child abuse is "Parent + Child + Situation = Abuse." (Kempe and Helfer, 1972) Although neglect and sexual abuse are a part of the abused child's life, this paper focuses upon the situation of the battered child, which involves an active physical abuse pattern.

Child abuse involves people at all socio-economic levels. The following descriptions of important motivations for abuse were adopted from Helping the Battered Child and His Family.

First, a parent must have the potential to abuse. This potential is acquired over time and is made up of many factors:

1. How was the parent reared, i.e., did he or she receive the mothering or fathering imprint?

2. Has he or she become an isolated individual who cannot trust others?

3. Does he or she have a passive spouse who cannot communicate or share emotions?

4. Are there unrealistic expectations for the child?

Second, there must be a child who is seen differently by his or her parent; one who fails to respond in the expected manner; or possibly one who is different (retarded, almost too smart, hyperactive, or has a birth defect)... Often the perfectly normal child is perceived as bad, willful, stubborn, demanding, spoiled or slow.

Finally, there must be a crisis that sets the abusive act into motion. It can be a minor or major crisis--a washing machine breaking down, a lost job, no heat, no food, or an in-law's visit (Kempe and Helfer, 1972).

Since child abuse is one of the major causes of death in children, it is time that this be viewed as a family economic issue. It takes

money to create adequate programs, and without government assistance it is nearly impossible to bring about needed help. One exception to this idea is The Citizens Child Abuse, Inc. program in Lexington, Kentucky. This association has created a "Friends to Families" program, which brings interested lay people in for six-hour training sessions. These individuals are volunteers who become friends to mothers who are abusing children. Many times, this friendship is the most important need of a mother who is socially isolated. This group is also sponsoring "The Nest", which is a drop-in center providing child care so a parent can get away from the child for awhile. Because the program must rely on facilities provided by the University's child development laboratory, "The Nest" can be open only two days a week and closes during those times when classes are not held. This reduces its effectiveness, thus it is presently an inadequate source of help.

By contrast, a program in St. Louis, Missouri, is funded by the federal government and provides consistency of treatment. Services for parents include individual and group therapy, parent education classes, and a 24-hour telephone hotline. Services for children include therapeutic day care, play therapy, crisis care and infant day care. These services are rendered in a home purchased for the purpose. The program is affiliated with children's hospital, so that referrals can be made by the hospital staff. Programs that are subsidized, such as this, usually offer much more than the volunteer programs.

One important factor that makes child abuse a social issue with the need for economic backing from government is the transient society, where families often relocate away from relatives or friends. Many other forces in the United States may cause families to be isolated. With no support systems, some families may begin to abuse family members. However, it is felt that child abuse as a pattern is the result of the belief that parents and teachers have the right to punish children by using physical force. In many instances, parents do not know how to discipline children. This raises the vital issue that overall education facilities need to include family-life education. Preventive programs are needed so that people can learn to relate more adequately as husbands and wives and also be able to cope with children.

> Family life educators can facilitate the kinds of problem solving parents need. Parents, needing help or seeking to learn more, do not always find resources to meet their needs fully. Family life educators must learn to tap all delivery systems available in local communities. The typical hold-a-class approach may be inadequate. Cooperation with medical associations, newspapers, churches, and schools may be required to reach parents.... An adequate knowledge of child development and an understanding of self plus an examination of the responsibilities of parenthood are essential to help parents develop realistic expectations of children and of themselves as parents. Effective parenting can be learned (Harriman, 1978).

Education also needs to promote the idea that childlessness is acceptable if individuals desire this. Children should have the right to be loved and wanted.

Research on Child Abuse

Caffey, a pediatric radiologist, published (1946) his findings that fractures of the long bones and subdural hematoma (bleeding under the outer membrane surrounding the brain) often occurred together in infants. He suggested the then novel idea that the common denominator of both types of injury might be accidental or willful trauma, perhaps inflicted by the parents. He had been compiling evidence since the early 1920's but the skepticism of his colleagues had made him reluctant to publish it. Even in 1946, other physicians paid little attention.

Silverman (1953) reported that physical injury was the most common bone 'disease' in infants, and commented on the reluctance of the medical profession to consider the possibility that some of these injuries might be caused by parental abuse. In 1962, Kempe and his associates for the first time used the phrase 'the battered child'. Widespread public and professional attention finally began to focus on the problem.

Hurt (1974) believes that the American perception of the existence of child abuse and neglect is now far in advance of the ability to cope with it. "Despite the intensive research efforts of the last several years, our understanding of the nature, scope, and treatment of child abuse and neglect is still rudimentary" (Hurt, p. 5, 6).

Dr. David Gil and a group from Brandeis University conducted studies beginning in 1965 and ending in 1968. The first study focused on information gained from records kept in California. The second was a nationwide public opinion survey to determine awareness of child abuse. They concluded that between 2.5 million and 4.1 million adults had personal knowledge of a case of abuse within that year. They conducted a Nationwide Epidemiological Study of Child Abuse in each of the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. For the entire nation, 5,993 cases of abuse were reported in 1967, and 6,617 cases in 1968. These figures were almost certainly below the actual incidence of child abuse, and seemed to confirm the inadequacy of reporting (Hurt, 1974).

Gil's research certainly helped influence the decision to pass national public legislation. He stated his beliefs as follows: "Violence against children constitutes a severe infringement of their rights as members of society. Since distribution of rights in a society is a key aspect of its social policies, modification of these policies are necessary if the rights of children to physical safety are to be assured. For social policies to be effective they must be based on a casual theory concerning the etiology of the condition which is to be corrected or prevented" (Gil, 1971).

In the Cohen and Sussman study (1973) the number of abuse cases reported in ten states was 27,569. Although such figures are available, they mean little except to indicate that abuse happens and that we need policies and government programs to help prevent it.

Prevailing Public Policy

The first major national policy was formed with the passage of Public Law 93-247 on January 31, 1974. It is encouraging to note that since the passage of this law all fifty states have passed laws making it a criminal offense not to report cases of abuse. However, it is still difficult to enforce these laws.

In the process of passing Public Law 93-247 the committees investigating child abuse heard the testimonies of many professionals and visited child-abuse facilities in at least one major city. These testimonies, supported by research information, influenced the passage of the bill and allocation of funds for three years. The establishment of the Center on Child Abuse and Neglect helped develop many innovative programs to counteract abuse.

The major portion of the funds available was used in demonstration programs which tested diversified ways of helping abused children and their families. These programs were carefully evaluated. Another larger portion of funds went for research. This research was to be directed toward "possible factors contributing to child abuse including marital strife and economic and social stresses on the family", and was to "examine the relationship of drug abuse and alcoholism to child abuse and neglect." These appropriations were used to train people to recognize and work with abused children. States were encouraged to form programs that met the national requirements, which included reporting procedures, immunity for reporters, investigation of reports, administrative procedures, personnel and training. States were also encouraged to apply for help from this grant and in some instances to raise matching funds. A long list of research reports are listed in a government publication entitled Extension of the Child Abuse Prevention and Treatment Act, 1977.

A significant research contribution was recently made by James Garbarino (1977). Garbarino summarizes the great need for research and policy in the future.

> Understanding child abuse is a high priority for both policy and science. The individualistic orientation of American culture and the clinical emphasis on personal psychopathology have biased our thinking to the detriment of both science and policy. What is needed is an approach to the maltreatment of children which recognizes the role of the family's relation to institutions, groups, and culture in influencing, and even controlling, parent-child relations. As this recognition grows, our understanding and thereby our policy and practice will become better able to guard against abuse. The most promising avenue seems to be an attack on the problem of isolation from potent support systems since this factor appears to be a necessary condition. Disarm it and one defuses the sufficient conditions of psychopathology and situationally defined caregiver incompetence. As research and policy on child abuse are redirected toward an emphasis on the human

ecology of family life, the scientific and policy communities will have an important role to play in changing the cultural foundations of abuse. They will do this by reducing the support for violence, by stressing integration rather than isolation and by recognizing that the failures and successess of parents are, in practice, a matter of social context as much as, if not more so, than matters of personal defect or superiority (Garbarino, 1977).

As policy is formed, consideration must be given to ways to facilitate preventive programs through the use of already existing educational facilities. Courses for better understanding family life and interrelationships should be incorporated in the curriculum of all professionals.

Even with excellent programs to prevent abuse, there will still be a need for government funds and policies to handle existing abuse cases and to educate people living at all levels.

Needs for Research

Garbarino (1977) outlined a number of areas for research and identified factors to consider as policy is formed. These are as follows: at the community level, there must be careful consideration given to economic resources, housing conditions and work patterns of the family. The age structure of the population and the ethnic and community characteristics of individual abusers are important. The general type of work done in the community may affect the needs of the community. There must be an understanding of those characteristics which relate to abuse. This is not necessarily true. Some people tend to think that child abuse is a lower-socio-economic problem. In the past, public institutions and hospitals tended to report more abuse, whereas private physicians and hospitals tended not to. This is reflected in abuse statistics.

One source of help is the area of "Neighborhood Support System" (Garbarino, 1977). In the past, the predominance of small communities meant that help was available from relatives and friends. Children were nurtured psychologically by many adult role models. This is no longer true, and consequently there is a need to supplement such help with plans to help people cope. Churches can provide support, but there is a great proportion of the population which churches do not reach. The concept of neighborhood associations needs to be developed. At present, these associations are vehicles to accomplish zoning goals such as not permitting businesses to locate in residential neighborhoods. We could use the idea as a support system for emotional needs of all age groups, with emphasis on the adults in the child-bearing and child-raising ages. The idea of substitute grandparents is an important one. Also, young adults without children could offer to babysit for an evening or a weekend and thereby get in touch with parenthood before they become parents themselves.

It is our approach as Americans to hire a professional, such as a City Manager to plan for the physical development of a city. The government should perhaps extend this idea by hiring a Family-Life Educator to coordinate and promote ideas such as those listed above. Neighborhood support groups are needed as much in higher socio-economic neighborhoods

as they are in the inner city. In fact, they may be more needed, as suburbia is such an isolated environment. This is part of the concept of dealing with prevention as one phase of research to influence policies that are made.

Family characteristics must become important issues as more and more families deviate from the old norms. There are also families coping with physical handicaps, emotional problems, or raising a child alone. (Garbarino, 1977) Research might examine birth control methods and find new ways to present this information to the public.

The following typology of research projects as considered by Garbarino (1977) presents some significant additional areas to consider:

A. Prospective studies of (1) families within neighborhoods 'at risk' (based on multivariate socioeconomic and demographic screening); (2) children 'at risk' because of family characteristics.
B. Retrospective studies of (1) family biography--the timing and sequence of major events and role transitions; (2) cohort studies to assess the impact of history on family developments relevant to child maltreatment.
C. Cross-sectional studies of the correlates of social isolation and incompetence in the caregiver role across ecologically contrasting neighborhoods.
D. Experimental studies of (1) intervention programs working with families to improve competence in the caregiver role; (2) programs which address the potency of support systems as a vehicle to decrease incidence and increase effective monitoring of families through 'natural neighbors'.

Another need for research is to find ways to train social workers to understand that child-abusing parents need help and reinforcement to cope with life. The past policy has been to jail such parents or threaten police action, which only causes more trauma. Also, if teachers, who are often most aware of abuse, are to be encouraged to report, then ways must be found to protect their right to annonymity.

Conclusion

Child abuse is very much a part of our culture. Although children are no longer forced to work long hours for pay and generally are better cared for than ever before in history, our society still falls below the standards of love and security to which children are entitled. We have learned about children's development in this century. We also must find ways for children to grow in dignity. It is time for the government to care more about family and people needs and less about war and defense mechanisms designed to destroy man. Money needs to be used to find more adequate birth-control methods. We must educate for parenthood and focus on preventive measures to eradicate child abuse.

One of the greatest problems of our democracy is the large turnover of plans and ideals with each new administration. Somehow, there must

be more consistency, so that when an adequate program or facility is provided, it can remain to serve the people it is helping. The demand on the personnel serving abusing families is difficult enough without having to continually fight for funds.

Public Law 93-247 and the formation of the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect is a beginning in the battle to alleviate child abuse. If we are to succeed in removing this blight on society, we need funds so that programs can reach more people.

Citizens must become interested in helping make society a worthwhile place in which to live. It takes interested, educated and informed people to make a democracy function adequately. The issue of child abuse is no exception.

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ISSUE II

WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF CHILDREN IN CASES OF DIVORCE?

Social, Economic and Political History

Congress has been concerned with the problem of parents who desert their families, who often have no choice but to fall back on public assistance as their source of income. In 1941 a bill was introduced in Congress in an attempt to make it a federal crime to leave a state with with the intention of avoiding payment of a support order and it granted federal district courts jurisdiction over suits to enforce support orders. The bill did not pass. (Bernet, 1975) By 1949 the problem of interstate enforcement of support duties had become acute. The Social Security Administration announced that the national and state bill for aid to dependents where the father was absent and not supporting was approximately $205,000,000 a year (Doyle, 1975). The first legislation related to child support passed Congress in 1950 and added section 402 to the Social Security Act. This law required welfare officials to notify local and state law enforcement personnel of payments made to children abandoned or deserted by their parents.

Prior to 1950 and the adoption of the Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act (URESA), also known as the Runaway Pappy Act, the problem of interstate enforcement of support had become increasingly critical mainly because Americans had become more mobile. URESA attempted to improve and extend by reciprocal legislation the enforcement of duties of support by means of both civil and criminal sanctions. The Act's provisions were in addition to, and not in substitution for, any remedies then existing within a state. Experiences in administering the URESA gave rise to amendments adopted in 1952 and 1958. The 1952 amendment created a State Information Agency to speed proceedings under the Act, and required the responding court to both exercise its own initiative and cooperate with the court of the initiating state in locating the obligor, resulting in less automatic closings of cases (Doyle, 1975). Amendments made in 1958 cut red tape by allowing plaintiff's papers to be forwarded to another state without having to refile petitions. Over the next several years it became more apparent, due to the increasing number of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) recipients who had been deserted or abandoned by a parent, that this notification procedure was having very little impact on the problem. In 1965, Congress again passed legislation to aid in the location of parents who had deserted their families. Under Public Law 89-97, Congress approved access to Social Security files for the most recent address and place of employment of the absent parent to be used for locating that parent if there was "a court order for child support against the absent parent" (U.S. Senate Comm. of Finance, 1975).

In 1967, Congress passed several significant, but inadequate, provisions relating to support enforcement. Under Public Law 90-248, the facilities of the Internal Revenue Service were added to those of the Social Security Administration for use by a state welfare agency in locating an absent parent. One section of this legislation "requires all states participating in AFDC to create separate organizational

units within state and local agencies to develop programs for establishing the paternity of, and securing support for, program recipients. The 1967 legislation also mandates the states to form reciprocal arrangements and cooperate to provide better enforcement of support obligations" (Bernet, 1975). These federal provisions provided inadequately for support enforcement because (Bernet, 1975):

1. they did not mandate establishing support proceedings
2. federal law did not require AFDC parents to file support petitions
3. it did not provide incentives for states to institute actions on behalf of welfare recipients in their jurisdiction
4. it imposed no sanctions for the failure of a state to bring such suits
5. there were no federal provisions allowing non-welfare parents access to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) files, so that they could not file for support when they had no other information regarding the location of the absent parent
6. there was no requirement that any federal department oversee the state programs

By 1972, it was apparent that the 1967 amendments were not, with few exceptions, being vigorously implemented by the states. In addition, HEW was not placing a high priority on enforcing the child support provisions of the act. In reaction to this situation the Senate finance committee made new proposals which were passed between House and Senate, finally agreeing on proposals which were approved by both Houses and signed by the President on January 4, 1975.

> The new law provides for greater federal assistance to states and localities through creation of a new enforcement unit within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, operation of a federal Parent Locator Service, and increased supervision of state enforcement programs. In addition, the imposes new responsibilities on the states for instituting suits against absent parents. It provides positive incentives for states to comply with its provisions as well as sanctions for those states which do not comply. Finally, the Child Support Provisions impose new duties on welfare recipients, requiring them to assign their right to receive support to the state, identify the putative fathers of their children, and cooperate in any support proceedings brought against the absent parents (Bernet, 1975).

This law represents a necessary, if somewhat coercive, addition to the federal law requiring enforcement of support obligations. It mandates federal intrusion into an area traditionally controlled by the states and imposes debatably strict eligibility requirement for welfare recipients. Its provisions may thus increase tensions between federal and state governments and between states and their welfare recipients.

"Constitutionally, this is a state problem" (Brockelbank, 1971). However, not all of the states have laws or policies which deal with the problem of child support.

Federal laws are supposed to help strengthen the individual state laws. Federal laws impose vast new responsibilities for support on the federal government, but overlook the fact that there is a great need for some judicial reform in regard to decisions handed down by the courts.

The adversary system of justice often breaks down in resolving child support decisions. Too many harsh decisions by courts applying rigid and punitive rules have shown that child support decrees cannot be equitably determined by fitting complicated facts into inflexible statutes. Hard and fast rules by which courts make decisions must give way to flexible standards that may be applied to the infinite variety of factual circumstances which is characteristic of each family on an individual basis. There is a need for a universal law which permits courts to award child support according to what is fair with respect to each individual case, considering its entire history and circumstances.

When two married persons go through the process of uncoupling (Sheresky, 1972) who is responsible for the financial support of the children? Society has recently concentrated on the problems of the women and children of divorce while the problems of the men are not always fully appreciated. The laws are clear and concise, but interpretation and attitudes of courts often

> focus on the mother as the provider of nurturing and the father as the provider of money. The principle that men are responsible for the care and feeding of their wives and families remains intact, despite recent changes in many state laws placing an equal burden on both parties in marriage (Cassidy, 1977).

The issue, as it emerges from research, is not so much who is financially responsible for a child's support, but how to make the courts more aware that they are dealing with human beings whose lives are dynamic and that hard and fast rules must give way to flexible standards that can be applied to individual cases.

The traditional American view has been that the financial support of a minor child is primarily the father's obligation and that a mother's income, assets, and ability to financially provide for minor children are irrelevant to the father's primary obligation. However, there is an emerging trend to consider child support a duty of both parents and to require each to contribute to a child's support in proportion to his or her financial ability (Walker, 1973).

Although the legal burden of child support may fall equally on both parents, in some states, the woman usually is left the bills. "According to estimates by federal officials, some 1.4 million fathers are not supporting their children, even though they are capable of doing so." (Cassidy, 1977) Many reasons for this have emerged. A major reason seemed to be conflicting demands upon money. In a Newsweek

article of May 15, 1978, "Saving the Family", it was noted that 83 percent of all divorced men remarry within three years while 75 percent of divorced women remarry within the same period. Many persons do not make enough money to support one, much less two, families.

Affecting the Issue

The ability to identify an issue and to attempt a change that is equitable revolves around the following steps:

- Diagnosis of the problem
- Acquiring relevant resources
- Choosing the solution
- Gaining acceptance
- Stablizing the innovation and generating self-renewal

A plan to use the steps as an outline to achieve desired change in relation to the issue can be devised: Who is Responsible for the Financial Support of Children in Cases of Divorce?

Diagnosis of the Problem

In their effort to decrease welfare spending, Congress passed several support acts over the years which have tried to deal with the issue of child support; mainly the support of children when one or both parents have deserted or abandoned. The most recent is the Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act (URESA) of 1975. This act established a Federal Parent Locator Service within the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Doyle, 1975).

The problem, however, is much more complex than locating an absent parent. The problem has to do with our changing lifestyles, the interpretation and attitudes of courts and judges, the ineffective, poorly designed or absent state laws regarding child support, and the need for a uniform support law that can be adopted by all the states.

Needed Research

The following questions need to be answered by research:

1. At what age should support of a child cease?
2. Who has the right to designate physicians and specialists?
3. Who is responsible for extraordinary medical expenses such as surgery, orthadontia, psychiatric care?
4. What part should a child's mental or physical handicap play?
5. Who will supervise proper use of support payments?
6. Who pays? Mother? Father? Both?
7. What part should custody play?
8. What should be considered reasonable cause for an increase in support payments?

9. Who pays attorney fees?
10. How can the courts be made more aware of the problem?

Changes are being initiated in two areas. First, women are re-examining their own roles. Some women today do not want to marry, may not want children if they do marry, and if they do have children, may not insist on custody in the event of divorce. At the same time, many more men than in the past are looking at their own sex stereotypes and saying 'perhaps it is as much a challenge to be a good father as to be vice president of the company.' Today many men and women are rejecting traditional sex stereotypes that have kept women in the home and men in the labor market. It is unknown how much of an effect these role changes are having in the average home; additional research is needed in these areas.

Acquiring Relevant Resources

Reliable resources are the key to successful research. In the case of child support there are resource avenues available for research projects. The most important resource concerning families where one or both parents are absent is the program of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). This is a federal and state program which functions to

> establish a single organizational unit to attempt to establish paternity and collect support for children receiving public assistance, who had been deserted by their parents. The States were required to utilize reciprocal arrangements adopted with other states and to enter into cooperative arrangements with appropriate courts and law enforcement officials (Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1976).

The Federal Parent Locator Service makes available to the State Parent Locator Service the most recent address and place of employment of a deserting parent and other pertinent information which it can obtain from HEW files or the files of any other Federal agency such as the Social Security Administration, or the Internal Revenue Service.

Each state has organizations which supply information on various aspects of divorce and related problems (Cassidy, 1977). These organizations are different depending on their composition, and offer different kinds of services--lawyer referral, counseling, help with families and children, financial advice, and other services. See attachment for a list of such organizations.

Choosing the Solution

After all available data have been collected and summarized, some type of solution should emerge. No matter what the solution might be, it should be beneficial to the children. Laws pertaining to divorce have failed to bridge the gap between the legal and psychological realities as they pertain to children. Some of this results from the common assumption of most parents and legal professionals that every-

thing will be satisfactory if the basic economic and legal difficulties can be worked out between the adults. The unrealistic theoretical approach that the courts act as "Quasi-parents" to the children has failed simply because the courts have little time to undertake such responsibility (Bass, 1976).

The best solution would seem to be for all states to adopt a uniform child support law. Work could then begin with local lawyers, judges, and representatives. State and federal representatives and Senators should be contacted and convinced of the need for new laws. None of this is possible without research which is the evidence legislators need to see.

Gaining Acceptance

Acceptance of a new law or a proposed new law hinges on how well the issue has been publicized and the need that is shown for this proposal. Local groups in the state or community are excellent places to seek support for such a proposal. Media, such as newspapers, radio, television, and newsletter, are excellent sources to use to gain local acceptance.

Individual personal testimony from persons who would be affected by this legislation and their reactions are also viable means of gaining acceptance of the issue. Asking such people to meet with citizen groups helps make more people aware of the problem and the proposed solution. The key is to begin on the grass roots level and build.

Stabilizing the Innovation and Generating Self-Renewal

If new legislation is passed, it should incorporate a self-evaluation system. The program should perpetuate itself by the improvements which show up in the evaluation process. Evaluation also may detect weaknesses not seen initially. Any changes should benefit those for which the legislation is designated. Research and evaluation are continuing processes and yet are most important for stabilizing the effectiveness of any legislation.

The responsibility of financial child support is the duty of both parents. The URESA has done much to help states who have existing child support laws, but a uniform and nondiscriminatory child support law is needed, which all states can adapt.

ATTACHMENT

SELECTED SOURCES OF INFORMATION
RELATED TO CHILD SUPPORT

American Family Council
231 Painter's Ville Road, #E-112
Decatur, GA 30034 404-243-6455
Frank F. Stuart, Chairman

Children's League of Divorced Parents
P. O. Box 9751
Baltimore, MD 21204 301-889-6322

Children's Rights, Inc.
3443 Seventeenth St., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20010 202-462-7573
Arnold I. Miller, President

Dissatisfied Divorced Men
P. O. Box 231
Titusville, NJ 08560
Harry M. Feller, Jr.

Divorce Reform, Inc.
P. O. Box 262
Somerset, WI 54025

Family Law Reform and Justice Council
Box 897
Ward Cove, AK 99928

Fathers Demanding Equal Justice
3752 Motor Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90034

Institute for the Study of Matrimonial Law
516 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10036 212-575-1234
Sidney Siller, President

Institute of Legal Research and Education, Inc.
P. O. Box 31813
Dallas, TX 75231 214-692-1492
Vernon Smith, President

We Care Foundation
121 Broadway, #517
San Diego, CA 92101

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ISSUE III

SHOULD FEDERAL MEDICAID FUNDS BE USED FOR ABORTIONS?

Political, Social and Economic History

Abortion has become one of the most controversial issues facing the American public today. It includes many broad areas of contention. Is abortion legally or morally "right"? Should there be a constitutional amendment to prohibit abortions? What are the rights of the fetus? Of the father? Finally, the question which this paper will address--should federal Medicaid funds be used for abortions?

Originally, the laws affecting abortion corresponded to the English common law of the 14th century which permitted termination of pregnancy (Leonard, 1974). Abortion before "quickening" (the first recognizable movement of the fetus in utero) was not against the law. There is some dispute (Hall and Rosenberg, 1978) regarding the abortion of a "quick" fetus, but the predominant view was one of a minor offense.

The first restrictive law regarding abortion was passed by the British Parliament in 1803. The stated reason was the protection of the mother's life, since the abortion could "rarely or never be effected by drugs without the sacrifice of the mother's life" (National Organization for Women, 1974). In the mid-19th century many of the United States followed suit and placed restrictions on abortion. According to the same source, New York was the first state to pass such a law (1828) and other states modeled their statutes to guard the health and life of the mother against the consequences of attempted abortion.

This argument against abortion was outmoded in the early twentieth century when English surgeon Joseph Lister's antiseptic techniques greatly reduced the risk of all surgery. Laws on abortion in the United States, however, did not change and by 1858, 40 states had laws banning abortion except to save the life of the mother.

It was not until the late 1960's that Colorado, California and North Carolina became the first states to liberalize their laws and allowed abortions in cases of rape, incest, danger to the mother's physical or mental health or in cases where there was evidence that the fetus was malformed. By 1970, Hawaii, Washington, Alaska and New York essentially made abortion-on-demand legal with stated procedural requirements (Francke, 1978).

The stage was then set for the landmark decision of the United States Supreme Court on January 22, 1973. Abortion laws of 46 states were declared unconstitutional by the decisions of Roe v. Wade, 410 U. S. 113 (1973) and Doe v. Bolton, 410 U. S. 179 (1973). This seven to two decision was based on the fundamental personal right of a woman to terminate her pregnancy under the 14th Amendment right to privacy and also the 9th Amendment's reservation of rights to the people (U. S. House of Representatives, 1976).

Essentially the new ruling stated that: (1) During the first 12 to 13 weeks of pregnancy, the matter is strictly between the woman and her physician. (2) From the twelfth to the twenty-fifth week, the state, may, if it chooses, regulate abortion procedure, but not prohibit abortion. (3) In the third trimester, the state may regulate or prohibit abortion except when necessary to preserve the life or health of the woman (Ely, 1973). Related court decisions held that spousal and parental consent were not necessary during the first trimester of pregnancy, and that states could not encumber abortion rights with unnecessary procedural requirements.

This original Supreme Court ruling led to the issue which this paper will address: the use of federal Medicaid funds for abortions. On June 20, 1977, the United States Supreme Court ruled in three related cases on whether the Medicaid statutes or the Constitution require public funding for nontherapeutic abortions for indigent women or access to public facilities for these abortions. In Beal v. Doe, 45 USLW 4781, 432 U. S. (1977), Maher v. Roe 45 USLW 4790, 432 U. S. (1977), and Peolker v. Doe 45 USLW 4794, 432 U. S. (1977), the court held that states do not have a duty or obligation to do these things (Hall & Rosenberg, 1978).

In June 1976, an amendment to the Department of Labor - Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) Appropriations Bill, FY77, was introduced by Rep. Hyde (R-Illinois) to prohibit use of federal funds to pay for or to promote or encourage abortions. A compromise version of this amendment was passed, over Presidential veto, on September 30, 1976. The Hyde amendment stated that "none of the funds contained in this Act shall be used to perform abortions except where the life of the mother would be endangered if the fetus were carried to term". This amendment P. L. 94-439 eliminated most use of federal Medicaid funds for abortions.

On December 7, 1977, after five months of debate over the phrasing, a second Hyde Amendment was attached to the Departments of Labor-HEW Appropriations Bill, FY 1978. This amendment also prohibited use of Medicaid funds for abortions, but, in addition to exceptions for danger to the mother's life, also excepted rape and incest victims. The amendment also allowed use of funds in case of potential permanent health damage from a full term pregnancy as certified by two physicians (Breckinridge, 1978).

In June, 1978, H.R. 12929, the Flood Amendment, was introduced to the Department of Labor-HEW Appropriations Act for FY 1979. The Flood Amendment prohibits use of Medicaid funds for abortion except where the mother's life is in danger (United States House of Representatives, 1978). In late 1978, the United States Congress passed the Flood Amendment with the original restrictive language intact. This decision made it even more difficult for Medicaid recipients to obtain federally funded abortions.

Abortion has existed since ancient times. Many procedures, often fatal to the mother, have been used. Ironically, in the early 1900's

when the procedures for therapeutic abortions were becoming fairly safe, the choice was taken away. One source suggests that the tightening of abortion availability shortly after the Civil War was based on the belief that women needed to bear their children to replace the citizens lost in combat (Francke, 1978). At any rate, by the mid-19th century, a woman wishing to terminate her pregnancy had to go abroad or turn to an illegal abortionist. That situation essentially remained until the 1973 Supreme Court decision.

A dramatic decline in the number of women hospitalized from botched abortions came about when the laws concerning abortion were liberalized. According to figures from the New York City Department of Health, fewer women died during pregnancy and child-birth following the new law. Infant mortality rates also declined and fewer out-of-wedlock children were borne (Tietze, 1973). A sharp decline was also noted in the fertility rate in New York State when the law was liberalized.

Despite figures that show the positive effects of legalized abortion, much protest has been heard since the 1973 Supreme Court ruling. The issue does not seem to be cooling off with time, but rather rekindling again as new questions arise. Constitutional amendments have been proposed in each Congress to protect the rights of the unborn. The Medicaid funding question also has caused considerable controversy in every Labor/HEW Appropriations Act since FY 1975.

The factions of Anti-Abortion and Pro-Abortion have become emotionally-charged. According to U. S. News & World Report an estimated 70,000 demonstrators participated in the "March for Life" on January 2, 1978, in Washington, D. C. People on both sides of the abortion issue have been lobbying for their cause. Violence has erupted, with eight abortion clinics set on fire and other clinics vandalized.

The general outcry from persons on both sides of the issue may have been because the public was not prepared for the Supreme Court decision of 1973. As quoted in Newsweek, June 5, 1978, Patricia Beyea, Director of the American Civil Liberties Union, Campaign for Choice says, "The grass roots of the country weren't prepared for it. The issue hadn't developed properly at the level." Joseph Califano, Secretary of HEW agreed; "People are better able to deal with problems... if they have to confront them in their own community first" (Fraker, Agrest, Simons, Howard, Reese, & Huck, 1978).

So, in the six years since the original decision, the abortion issue has developed into a very visible controversy. As supporters on each side of the issue voice strong opinions, the social and political aspects of the controversy continue to develop.

Economically, the cost of abortions has decreased since the laws were liberalized. Charges for a first trimester abortion have dropped from $600 to $150 (U. S. Senate, 1974, Part 1). Abortion clinics have also reduced costs by eliminating hospitalization.

Legalized abortions have also resulted in welfare dollars saved. Taxpayers complain about having their money spent for abortions, but

many of these operations have eased the strain on welfare payments and Aid for Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). In New York City, after abortion was liberalized in 1970, "the number of children born to welfare families dropped for the first time in 30 years..." (U. S. Senate, 1974, Part 1). From 1970-1972 New York City saved approximately $15 million in welfare payments. The birthrate for recipients of AFDC in New York City also decreased, dropping 30 percent between 1971 and 1972.

In California, the availability of therapeutic abortion increased the number of abortions paid for by Medicaid. There is little doubt, however, that the costs of prenatal care and delivery are much more expensive than the costs for abortions. An abortion paid for by Medicaid at $200 is only one fifth the cost for prenatal care and delivery, an estimated $1,000. If mother and child go on welfare rolls, as would be expected, the cost would be $3,000/year or $54,000 for 18 years of support (Family Planning Information, 1974). There can be little question that a federally-paid therapeutic abortion could save tax dollars.

Another factor to be considered in the economics of federally-funded abortions is the reduction of population growth. Lower socio-economic groups, generally found to be the most prolific, are the persons who may be bearing more children because of the lack of available funds for abortions. As the population increases, resources are depleted and everyone must bear the higher costs of living.

Also affecting the economics of federally-funded abortions is the increase in illegitimate births. This adds to the numbers receiving welfare funds. According to U. S. News and World Report, "most of the illegitimate births are taking place among women least able financially to care for their babies." Other economic consequences of restricted federal funds for abortions include women turning back to illegal, unsafe abortion procedures, resulting in hospitalization at government expense, and the delaying of the abortion, increasing both the cost and the risk of complications.

Impact on Families

It can hardly be disputed that the restriction of federal funds for abortion is having an economic effect on families in the United States. Households already under a financial burden must find a way to cover the expense of another mouth to feed. An employed wife and mother finds herself faced with loss of income or, at best faced with child-care expenses if she returns to work. Those females and families least able to afford a child are the citizens suffering from the prohibition of Medicaid funds for abortions. In the writer's opinion, this situation amounts to discrimination against poor persons. Those women with adequate financial resources can secure a safe, legal abortion; those women in families with great financial need cannot.

The American public is being forced to pay higher welfare amounts because of the restrictions which prevent Medicaid-funded abortions for indigent women. The costs of prenatal care, delivery and support for

the mother and child are far greater than the cost of a therapeutic abortion. The average family also suffers the effects of the drain of natural resources as the population increases.

The prohibition of federal Medicaid funds for therapeutic abortions has had a definite impact on families in the past, especially low income persons. According to U. S. News & World Report, the number of abortions in Arkansas paid for by federal funds dropped from 500 in 1976 to 5 in 1977. South Carolina fell from 1,400 to 14 and Texas from 13,300 to 59. This means that, in most cases, women are being forced to go ahead with their pregnancies or to find funds for abortion elsewhere when their families are already below poverty level. There has undoubtably been emotional, as well as financial hardships, for these women.

As noted earlier, when abortion was liberalized, a number of positive changes occurred in American families. The number of children born into welfare families decreased. Incomplete of "botched" abortions declined and fewer women died during pregnancy and childbirth. Infant deaths also decreased (United States Senate, 1974, Part 1). Dr. Christopher Tietze claims that 70 percent of the legal abortions performed in 1973 in New York City replaced illegal abortions (United State Senate, 1974, Part 2). In California and New York, the illegitimate birth rate decreased following the new abortion laws. California experienced a 16 percent decline in out-of-wedlock births from 1970 to 1971. After an all-time high of 21.4 percent in 1970, New York had a 12 percent decline in 1971 (United State Senate, 1975). In 1973, 42 percent of all abortions were paid for by Medicaid, according to The New York Times, December 6, 1973.

In September of 1976, the first Hyde Amendment, prohibiting federal funds to be used for abortions was passed without benefit of hearings. When the same amendment was introduced in the FY 78 Labor/HEW Appropriations, hearings were held. Opposition was voiced on the amendment, claiming it discriminatory on two counts. One count states that all alternatives to pregnancy except abortion are federally funded for Medicaid recipients. Poor women in general are denied access to health care that is generally available to those who could afford to pay (United States House of Representatives, 1977). Representative Millicent Fenwick stated, "The amendment denies to the poor a medical procedure which is legal and available to every woman who has money. The amendment thus violates the clause which gives us equal protection under the law. It is discriminatory and should not be included in the new appropriations bill." In an impact statement for HEW, Dr. Louis Hellman provided figures that showed the additional numbers of persons who may be placed on welfare rolls because of this prohibition of Federal funds for abortions (United States House of Representatives, 1977).

In spite of these protests and evidence, the Hyde Amendment was passed in December of 1977. It contained compromise language, but it still discriminated against indigent women. It appears to some that beneficial effects of legalized abortion are in danger of being reversed by these restrictions on federal funds.

Presently, only 15 states and the District of Columbia still pay for all or most abortions under Medicaid. Some sources say that the effects of the new restrictions have been limited since 70 percent of the Medicaid-funded abortions have been performed in states that still fund indigent women's operations. This reasoning may be unsatisfactory, since the 34 states that refuse funding have no records of the need for abortion services.

The most recent data available on abortions date from 1976. Statistics from the Alan Guttmacher Institute report that approximately 1,270,000 abortions were performed that year, about 275,000 of which were paid for by Medicaid. First-trimester abortions accounted for 89.4 percent, second trimester 10.5 percent and third trimester only 0.1 percent of the total number of abortions. Abortions were found to be four times safer than live births -- 3.2 deaths per 100,000 abortions as opposed to 12.8 deaths per 100,000 live births. The average cost of a first-trimester abortion in a clinic was estimated at $185 (Guttmacher Institute, 1978).

If the Hyde amendment had been in effect in 1976, it would have ruled out two thirds of the medicaid-funded abortions according to Time magazine. That means that over 180,000 indigent women may have been faced with an unwanted pregnancy. According to a Yankelovich poll reported in a December 19, 1977 Time magazine article, 64 percent of the public approved of abortion on demand; 58 percent felt that public funds should not be used for abortions except in cases of rape, incest or danger to the mother's life. These people agreed with President Carter that "Life is Unfair" and the rich will always be able to afford things which the poor cannot. This attitude may be biased and discriminatory.

Because of a District Court injunction against the Hyde Amendment passed for FY 1977, the prohibition of Medicaid funds did not go into effect until August 4, 1977, when the restraining order was lifted. Therefore, figures concerning the outcome of the new law will have to be derived from 1978 figures not yet available. It will be difficult to discern the true effect of the Hyde Amendment on indigent and welfare families because of limited reporting practices.

Who will be affected by the cut-off of federal funds for abortions and what will those effects be? Low-income families will probably be directly and drastically affected by the cut-off of medicaid abortion funds. The average cost of an abortion in the United States is 280 dollars. That is 42 dollars higher than the average monthly welfare payment to cover food, clothing, shelter and necessities for an entire family (Lincoln, Doring-Bradley, Lindheim, and Cotterill, 1977). It appears that few indigent women who become pregnant will be able to afford a legal abortion. If they do obtain the operation, it might well be at the expense of the basic necessities of family life.

It seems likely that the new Medicaid policy will cause indigent women to turn to illegal abortions, home remedies, or even try to abort themselves. Any of these alternatives can have tragic consequences for some American families. HEW's Center for Disease Control reports that

if all women previously eligible for federally-funded abortions were to seek an illegal abortionist, many women would die than if they could use legalized means. If all women had the children they conceived, more would also die than if legal abortions had been obtained (Lincoln, et al., 1977).

Additional mortality is the most extreme consequence. Complications from abortions (legal and illegal) and pregnancy and childbirth are 100 times more frequent than death from these, especially among low-income women. The effects of denied funds will fall heavily on minorities, where the use of Medicaid health care is much higher. Other consequences, not to be forgotten or taken lightly, are the mental anguish of most of these women and the probability of increased feelings of helplessness among the poor. The strain will also be felt in poor families by the poverty in which their children grow up. Families of all income levels will feel the strain on public funds for welfare, AFDC and health care because of the cut-off of Medicaid funds for therapeutic abortions.

Related Research

Research in the area of Medicaid payments for abortion as a basis for public policy is quite scarce. During the Appropriations hearings in 1977, the lack of statistics was evident. The main source of information for many of the quotations was the impact statement of HEW's Dr. Louis Hellman. The sources of those statistics were estimates published by various government agencies. According to Family Planning Perspectives, September/October, 1977, "...there is no national reporting system and no compatible state reporting systems which publish data on the number of abortions that are publically funded each year, the amount of money that is spent, the facilities where the abortions are performed, or the characteristics of the women obtaining the abortions" (Lincoln, et al., 1977).

This situation represents an intolerable oversight in assessing the effects of current legislation. The information is never published and analyzed because neither federal or state governments have required the data to be gathered, tabulated and made available. Some states have reported or estimated the number of abortions financed by Medicaid. It is this information and large random samples of abortion suppliers, as well as press reports, that the Alan Guttmacher Institute uses for its statistics.

The Guttmacher Institute's figures on abortion were those most often quoted as sources for this study. The Institute, the research mechanism for Planned Parenthood, publishes some of the most thorough and accurate statistics on abortion in the United States. Along with the Center for Disease Control, the Guttmacher Institute has also tried to fill the need for data on abortion.

Another authority in the field has been Dr. Christopher Teitze of the Population Council. The Council's 1972 Joint Program for the Study of Abortion (JPSA) has become a model of classic research. "It is a

study of who obtained legal abortions in the United States, under what institutional conditions, when in the course of pregnancy, by what medical means, and with what medical complications if any" (Tietze, 1972). It was reported in JPSA that there were 73,000 abortions from mid-1970 to mid-1971. This statistic represents about one seventh of all abortions performed in that time period. Sixty-six institutions from 13 states provided the basis for the study. The Population Council has also published numerous articles related to its abortion studies.

During the 1975 hearings on a constitutional amendment to prohibit abortion, the statistics quoted were badly dated. Most data were quoted from the years 1969 to 1972. These figures did not include information which had been gathered since the United States Supreme Court decision of January 1973. There has been, and continues to be, a great lack of research on abortion and specifically on Medicaid-funded therapeutic abortions. The full impact of the Hyde Amendment cannot be measured accurately because of important data which is lacking.

HEW, as well as private research organizations, should address themselves to the issue of federal funds for abortions. Data needs to be gathered, compiled and analyzed regarding the actual demand for abortion assistance among indigent women; the amount of aid coming from public and private organizations and institutions; the alternatives which low income women choose and the effect of their decisions on their families. Information regarding the effects on the public as a whole also need to be ascertained. Variables to examine might well include illegitimacy rates, amounts of welfare funds used to support these Medicaid families, population figures, and others.

The psychological impact of the prohibition of medicaid funds for abortions among indigent women and their families should be considered a vital factor in this issue. Will the suicide rate increase as a result of the new law? Emotional effects of this public policy concerning abortion are important, but will be extremely difficult to measure.

Emotions may have played a large role in formulating the public policy of prohibition of federal medicaid funds for abortions. What is needed is basic research--reliable facts and figures upon which to base a rational decision. Our legislators need to consider their obligation to the public, rich and poor alike.

Influencing the Issue

To prevent passage of amendments which prohibit use of federal Medicaid funds for abortions, an organized effort must be made to voice opposition to this amendment. This can be accomplished by encouraging citizens to voice their opinion on the issue to their legislators. Indigent women should understand the cause of the cut-off of federal monies for abortions and be informed on how to make a stand for their rights. Citizens who carry private health insurance need to realize the possible impact of the prohibition on their tax dollars and on welfare funds.

The plan proposed herein will inform people and encourage them to make their views known. Those persons who favor legal, safe, funded abortions have been too silent in their belief that abortion should continue to be legal and accessible to all. Since passage of the 1977 Hyde Amendment, it is not accessible to all. Thirteen states have passed resolutions calling for a constitutional amendment to ban abortion altogether (Fraker, et al., 1978). This situation and the strength of the anti-abortion lobbying forces are not to be taken lightly.

Pro-abortion groups are beginning to realize the power of their anti-abortion foes. National Right to Life claims 11 million members in 1,500 chapters and a budget of $1.3 million. Ann Higgins, Vice chairperson of Americans for a Constitutional Convention is quoted in Newsweek as saying, "We perceive this as a war situation." According to U. S. News & World Report, an estimated 70,000 anti-abortion proponents participated in the March for Life in January, 1978. The National Conference of Catholic Bishops of the Roman Catholic Church employs a lay lobbying group, the National Committee for a Human Life Amendment, supported by contributions in excess of $300,000.

Abortion supporters are now starting to fight too. The American Civil Liberties Union has made the abortion issue its top priority this year. The largest lobbying arm of the Pro-abortion movement, the National Abortion Rights Action League, (NARAL), has more than quadrupled its membership in the last year (Fraker, et. al., 1978). Other groups have organized to keep abortion legal and accessible to all and include the Religious Coalition for Abortion Rights and Planned Parenthood.

In order to keep abortion legal and available to rich and poor, citizens must work individually and as members of groups striving for these goals. The plan that this paper proposes includes cooperating with organizations supporting the Pro-abortion viewpoint. It is likely, however, that letters communicating opposition to the Flood Amendment, written directly to legislators by voters, will have the greatest impact in changing the law concerning federal funding of abortions. Legislators, weary of bombardment by lobbying groups, may be more receptive to the views of their own constituents.

An outline of the plan to protect abortion rights follows. Also attached are sample brochures to inform citizens, and sample letters to encourage participation in changing the present policy. No effort has been made to include state legislatures in this plan since the issue deals exclusively with federal funds for abortions. Also omitted is a plan for formal education because the nature of the system precludes its involvement in the issue.

The plan for restoring federal Medicaid funds for therapeutic abortions of indigent women is intended to be implemented with the help of Pro-Abortion organizations in the target area. Two such groups are NARAL and Planned Parenthood. Citizens interested in expressing their opinion to legislators will be referred to these groups by brochures and other sources of information.

In order to accommodate a wide variety of reading levels and comprehensive abilities, two sample information brochures have been developed. The first (attachment 1) is designed for those with limited reading ability and the second (attachment 2) is for those with higher reading levels.

It is generally recognized that low income and minority groups, who comprise the majority of Medicaid recipients, obtain much of their news and public information from radio and television. Attachment #3 is a sample Radio/Television script designed to reach these persons and refer them to an appropriate group for information. Funds to pay for these announcements and mailing of information could be provided by contributions and interested organizations.

These brochures and mass media announcements will be combined with other activities, such as letters to the editors, as means of reaching supporters and potential supporters. The focus of these activities will be to help people examine the issue and decide for themselves where they stand. These persons are then urged to take a public stand for the position they support and believe in.

ATTACHMENT 1

HERE'S A SAMPLE LETTER

Dear....

As a voter in your area, I would like to say that I am opposed to the Flood Amendment, H.R. 12929, on the 1979 Labor/HEW Appropriations. In the language this year the only exception is for danger to the mother's life if the fetus is carried to term. No provision is made for rape, incest or health damage.

I believe that this amendment discriminates against people who rely on Medicaid for their health care. Pregnancy and all alternatives to pregnancy except abortion are funded. The right to choose abortion should not be taken away. This restriction could also place a heavier burden on Welfare and AFDC payments, according to a statement by Dr. Louis Hellman for HEW.

I strongly urge you to oppose H.R. 12929 and vote against the unfair and highly restrictive Flood Amendment.

Sincerely,

Your Name
Your Address

IF YOUR HEALTH CARE IS PAID FOR BY MEDICAID...

DID YOU KNOW???

That the Federal Government has stopped paying for abortions except:

When the mother's life is in danger.

In cases of rape or incest reported to the police.

When there is possible permanent health damage to the mother stated by two doctors.

WHAT DOES THIS MEAN?

It means that the Federal Government is discriminating against those with no money for health insurance. People able to pay can still get abortions any time they want. People unable to afford their health care cannot get abortions paid for by Medicaid.

WHAT CAN WE DO?

WRITE your Senators and your representative and tell them how you feel about the situation!

SHOW this fact sheet to your friends and ASK them to write letters, too!

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ATTACHMENT 2

HAVE YOU REALIZED THE POSSIBLE CONSEQUENCES OF THE RESTRICTIONS ON FEDERAL MEDICAID FUNDS FOR ABORTIONS?

Passage of the Hyde Amendment to the Departments of Labor/Health, Education and Welfare Appropriations Act for the Fiscal Year 1978 cut-off Medicaid funds for abortions except:

- When the mother's life is endangered if the fetus is carried to term
- In cases of reported rape or incest
- In instances of potential permanent health damage as certified by two physicians

This law is now in effect. The Flood Amendment, H.R. 12929, was introduced in June of 1978 to affect appropriations for 1979. Its language is even more restrictive, allowing federally-funded abortions only in cases of danger to the mother's life.

This restriction of federal funds is discriminatory against the poor in general and specifically against those women who choose to have an abortion. Childbirth, natural miscarriage and family planning services are all subsidized under Medicaid. The choice for abortion in the case of pregnancy should also be federally-funded. Women with adequate finances can secure an abortion at any time. Indigent women should have the same right of equal protection under the law.

The prohibition of federal Medicaid funds for abortions could also result in an increase in other welfare payments. During 1976 an estimated 250,000 to 300,000 abortions were paid for by Medicaid at a cost of $45 to $50 million. If these women were refused abortions, the cost for childbirth and public assistance would be $450 to $565 million for the first year. This could have serious consequences for your tax dollars spent on Welfare.

What can be done to remedy this situation?

As voters, all of us can have an impact on what laws are passed. Your opinion can make a difference in the way your elected representative in Washington casts his vote on an issue. If you feel that the cut-off of federal Medicaid funds for abortions is damaging, you should voice your opinion. H.R. 12929, the Flood Amendment has not yet been passed. Write your Senators and Representatives and urge them to oppose H.R. 12929 and vote against the Flood Amendment.

ATTACHMENT 3

RADIO/TELEVISION

Is your health care paid for by Medicaid? If it is, here's something you ought to know. The federal government no longer pays for abortions under Medicaid. This means that the health coverage you receive is not equal to others. The choice to have or not to have an abortion is every woman's right, whether she is rich or poor. The passage of an amendment for this year will take away the right to choose. To find out more about this and what it can mean to you, call, write, or stop by:

Name

Address and

Location of cooperating agency

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ISSUE IV

SHOULD MARITAL STATUS PLAY A ROLE IN DETERMINING INCOME TAXES?

Social, Economic, and Political History

Some form of taxation has existed since the beginning of civilization. In the forming of the New World and our system of government, taxation was essential. However, it was not until 1948 that Congress decided to enact legislation which used marital status to determine the amount of taxes one would pay.

> Prior to 1948, individuals, whether married or single, residing in common law states were separate taxpayers while married persons residing in community property jurisdictions were permitted to split their aggregate income, one half to each. Because the income tax rates were and are graduated upwards, when the income actually received by one spouse substantially exceeded that of the other, income splitting produced a significant aggregate tax saving. In 1948, noting that a number of common law states already had shifted to the community property system in order to offer the income splitting benefit to their citizens and concerned that many other states would follow suit, Congress enacted a joint return provision for married couples (1).

For the next twenty years single people were discriminated against because married people could file joint returns and save by claiming standard deduction two times.

The Revenue Act of 1948 also established that marital status on December 31 of the tax year was the determining factor when deciding marital status. If a couple had divorced, they were considered unmarried for the entire year, whereas if one of the partners had died, the survivor was considered married for the entire tax year (10).

In the 1960's a push began for tax reforms. In 1969 a Tax Reform Act was passed which required that both spouses elect the same method for filing. The could use either standard deduction or low income allowance (12). This act was the first attempt to equalize the amount of taxes paid by single taxpayers as compared with married taxpayers. The Tax Reform Act of 1971 favored singles over married couples (2 and 8). This act lowered the tax rate for singles (6) resulting in a tax penalty for households in which both spouses were employed. With the emergence of two career families and as inflation continued to spiral, this discrimination against two-worker couples became obvious.

The Tax Reform Act of 1976 made it even more costly for both spouses of marriage to be employed. This act also increased the standard deduction for singles to $2,400 and for a married couple to $2,800.

> This act, through the standard deduction and the use of different tax rate schedules determined by one's marital status, caused more federal income taxes to be paid by married taxpayers simply because of their marital status.
>
> The 1977 tax laws altered the standard deductions allowed single and married taxpayers, thereby partially reducing the tax penalty on married workers. However, marrieds were still discriminated against because the standard deduction was $2,200 for single individuals and $3,200 for married couples (6).

The tax rates benefit two single taxpayers more than two married taxpayers, especially when the standard deduction is used (6). "The tax laws of the United States do more than collect revenue. They provide incentives for certain types of behavior that Congress wishes to encourage. The 'marriage penalty' serves as a strong incentive for working couples to sever their marriage relationship" (3).

In 1977 a ruling from the Federal Revenue Service stated that:

> If you obtain a foreign divorce for the sole purpose of enabling you and your spouse to qualify as unmarried individuals eligible to file separate returns, and if you then remarry each other early in the next year, you and your spouse must file as married individuals.

Davidson (1) reasons that the number of unmarried couples living together is increasing because of current tax laws which discourage couples from formalizing their relationships through marriage. Statistics from the United States Census reveal that the number of households where unrelated adults of the opposite sex shared living quarters doubled between 1970 and 1976.

Since the people most penalized by current tax laws are in two-earner families many women are not encouraged by the United States government to seek work outside the home. Furthermore,

> the limitation placed on the child care deduction allowable to married taxpayers can dramatically increase the marriage penalty for many working couples with small children (3).

Related Research

Little research is available concerning discrimination in tax rates by marital status. One study by Jensen and Wyndelts (5) made all factors constant except for marital status. The researchers found that by choosing the appropriate definition of equity, it can be argued with equal strength that the federal income tax rate structure discriminates against single individuals or that it discriminates against married couples. Their research supported the belief that the tax structure discriminates because two individuals who marry pay higher joint taxes after marriage than the combination of their separate taxes prior to marriage. They concluded the following:

1. If one sees singles and marrieds as equivalent economic units, then discrimination against singles can be supported;

2. If one thinks "economic units with equal per capita income should have equal per capita tax liabilities", then discrimination against marrieds can be proven, and;

3. If one thinks individuals with equal taxable incomes should have equal total tax liabilities, then the tax structures can be said to favor the type of marriage where the husband is the prime income source, at the expense of the single taxpayer (5).

When considering changes in the current tax rate structure, legislators must consider what impact changing laws would have on the United States tax revenues. Research is needed before Congress can design tax rate structures to meet the needs of both singles and marrieds. "Considering the traditionally high value placed on marriage in American society, it's likely that steps will eventually be taken to reduce the tax penalty placed on married people (6)."

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ISSUE V

SHOULD INTENTIONAL COMMUNITIES BE ENCOURAGED?

Social, Economic and Political History

The intentional community movement in the United States has its roots in the utopian communities created by religious sects as early as 1680. Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1972) has stated that "historically, three kinds of critiques of society have provided the initial impulse for the utopian search: religious, politico-economic, and psychosocial." The earliest wave of community-building, associated with religious ideals, lasted until around 1845. A second wave of community building, by the politico-economic uptopians, began in the 1820's and flourished in the 1840's. Historically, the decade of the 1840's saw the greatest wave of community-building in America (Kanter 1972).

Another wave of community-building began after World War II and reached a peak of activity in the late 1960's and early 1970's. Kanter (1972) has determined that "although a number of today's communal experiments began with religious or politico-economic critiques of society, the majority are based on a third psychosocial critique." This critique is based on the concept of alienation, and it places its emphasis on fostering intimacy and self-actualization.

Many recent experiments in communities have taken the form of communes. Membership in communes is voluntary, as opposed to blood-related. Intentional communities, however, must include "a minimum of three families and also common economic, spiritual and cultural institutions" (Bouvard, 1975).

The Federation of Intentional Communities (FIC) blossomed in the 1950's, and although it has dissolved as an organization, Bouvard (1975) reports that its member colonies "are still flourishing today: Celo, May Valley Cooperative. the Reba Place Fellowship, Koinonia Partners, Gould Farm, and Tanguey Homesteads." The Vale in Yellow Springs, Ohio has dwindled to a few families, but its resource center, Community Services, Inc., has continued much of the theoretical and inspirational work of the FIC.

In the late 1950's there were only about a dozen intentional communities in existence. Yet, Bouvard (1975) reports that a decade later the communitarian movement burgeoned and now includes hundreds of homesteading communities, thousands of urban intentional communities, and dozens of spiritually oriented groups."

Along with the growth in intentional communities, Shimon Gottschalk (1975) reports that two other types of deviant communities (communities that differ from the norm) have developed recently in this country. These are the administered community and the designed community. Sponsored retirement villages and company towns are examples Gottschalk gives of administered towns. Designed or planned communities range from private housing developments to government-sponsored new towns.

Jonathan B. Howes, Director of the Center for Urban and Regional Studies at the University of North Carolina, recommended two new public policy options after completing a three-year study on seventeen new towns for the National Science Foundation. Howes (Oversight Hearings on the New Communities Program) stated that "given the waning developer interest in large-scale new communities, or larger-scale development, the program could be re-oriented toward smaller-scale planned unit developments, villages, and experimental new communities." A second option Howes recommended was to link new communities with the implementation of national urban growth policy.

The federal government took the advice of Priest and continued its involvement with the new communities. The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) tried to save the existing new towns, but did not finance new developments. It did not appear, however, to act on the advice of Howes and re-orient public policy concerning the new towns. There was, though, another attempt to link the new communities with a national urban growth policy in the Housing and Community Development Act of 1977.

The ultimate result of the Department of Housing and Urban Development sponsorship was much slower-than-anticipated growth in the federally financed new towns, and loan defaults by developers in seven of these. The severe financial burden of the program caused HUD Secretary Patricia Harris to announce in October 1978 that the new towns program would be ended, with HUD selling or transferring financial control for seven of the agency's remaining thirteen communities.

New communities in the United States today consist of the six new towns which HUD thinks may survive, several privately financed new towns which are still growing (the most famous probably being Columbia, Maryland and Reston, Virginia), some administered communities, and a number of intentional communities which have not sought the attention of the federal government.

Rationale for Consideration as a Family Economics Issue

The community and the housing in which a family lives affect and are affected by the family's economic situation. The quality of housing a family has is largely determined by family income, and maintenance and home improvements are largely dependant on owner income. The community is usually dependent on proximity to jobs for its affluent mobile citizenry, whereas the unemployment of our poor is at least partially a result of lack of jobs near low-income housing and inadequate transportation to industrial areas.

Housing in America has become increasingly cut off from places of employment, shopping areas, social service providers and cultural and recreational centers, resulting in changes in family consumption patterns. An example of these new consumption patterns is the amount of money families spend annually on purchase and maintenance of two or more automobiles in the suburbs. The high mobility that has resulted from increased education and post-industrial capitalism has taken people away

from their home communities, causing a great turn-over in housing dollars and additional money spent on moving expenses and hired child-care. People are also becoming more and more removed from the land and the sources of food and clothing, with more items being processed and packaged, resulting in financial and energy drains.

The encouragement of intentional communities in this country is a family economics issue because, first of all, it affects where some families spend their housing dollars. It also would affect the availability of suitable new housing for families of all socio-economic backgrounds. Should tax money be used to encourage the creation of intentional communities, all families would be a least indirectly affected.

More important, intentional communities would allow the creation of alternate economies for their members. Families could participate in group gardens, food co-ops, bartering, exchanging, and general resources sharing. Family members might take on the role of producer as well as consumer. It is conceivable that fewer dollars would be necessary to maintain a family in an intentional community, and the community would relieve outside agencies from some of their burden to provide services to families.

Decisions related to what and how much a family purchases in common or privately, and the amount of influence families have in the development of their community are additional ways in which the intentional community concept is a family economics issue.

History of Impact on Families Related to Public Policy

The public policy of financing new towns led to new community developments which were shown to be superior to conventional developments in five ways: (1) increased choice of housing types and safe neighborhoods with more amenities and services; (2) better access to community facilities and services, and alternative modes of transportation; (3) better recreational services; (4) higher resident ratings on overall community livability; and (5) more open and satisfactory living environments for minority groups of all ages, races, and incomes (Oversight Hearings on the New Communities Program).

The impact of this policy on families was to provide more choice in housing, more local services, greater participation in outdoor recreation, which could result in better health; transportation options, which could result in energy and financial savings; and greater satisfaction in living, which would undoubtedly result in better mental health. Ending the new towns program has taken away the opportunity for a better way of life for many families.

The greatest impact of not encouraging the creation of intentional communities in this country has been the increasing isolation of the nuclear family. Each family unit tries to be self-sufficient, and frequently people do not even know their immediate neighbors. Each family

aspires to own its own clothes washer and dryer, vacuum cleaner, lawn mower, ladder, barbeque grill, swing set, and pool table. Financial pressures are inevitable for all but the most affluent.

Americans became interested in new towns after the British government passed the New Towns Act of 1946. The new town was defined by Golony (1976) as "a newly built or expanded urban settlement created to combine urban and rural environments...It is relatively independent and has a sound economic base, self-containment, self-sustainment, and self-government. A successful new town provides daily required social, cultural, educational, commercial, and public or private services to satisfy the community and to minimize commuting behavior. A new town has diverse land use that includes industrial, commercial, and service activities. It provides employment opportunities for a wide labor market and a variety of housing for its residents." Robert Weaver began to use the term new community to describe the uniquely American version of this experiment in housing. Golony has written (1976), that "the fundamental characteristic of a new community is its major function as a satellite new community - the provision of housing." While new communities provide more services than suburbia, they do not suggest the kind of self-sufficiency of the European new town model.

Golony has written (1976) that "most of the recent new settlements that deserve to be called new towns are those in which national governments have had dominant roles in the four major phases of their development which include (1) land assemblage and financing; (2) establishment of a mechanism for action; (3) construction, planned implementation, and financing; and (4) operation of the town, at least in the early stages of development."

In the United States the New Communities Act of 1968 was passed to facilitate the enlistment of private capital in new community development. Congress declared in the Urban Growth and New Community Act of 1970 that the national urban growth policy should encourage new community development. The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) began its New Town experiment in 1971, after the Subcommittee on Housing and Community Development of the House Committee on Banking, Currency and Housing developed legislation to provide for federal assistance in the development of new communities. A New Community Development Corporation was created within HUD by the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974.

By 1975, fourteen new communities has been approved by HUD and most were in serious financial trouble. The housing industry and the economy were both depressed in 1975, and HUD temporarily suspended processing of all new applications for new communities. Because of that suspension and because of administration had only implemented one form of assistance (relating to loan guarantees), oversight hearings on the new communities program were held in September 1975.

Donald E. Priest, Research Director of the Urban Land Institute, testified at the hearings that a North Carolina study and other sources gave a preliminary indication of the superiority of new communities with

regard to transportation, recreation services, and land use planning. Priest went on to say (Oversight Hearings on the New Communities Program) that "more importantly there are indications that new communities may provide a unique opportunity to create racially and economically integrated living arrangements. The latter promise alone should be sufficient justification for continuing federal involvement in new communities."

Psychological pressures also mount, especially for women isolated at home with small children. There is not the safety valve of a network of close friends and neighbors to help guard against child abuse, drug abuse, and general anomie.

The impact of a public policy encouraging intentional communities would be that resources would go to the prevention of family problems, rather than their treatment.

While communes and radical collectives have met the needs of their relatively few members, they have not had much impact on the larger society. Communal households do not easily accommodate nuclear families, and are too far outside the mainstream of society for most families, who would otherwise benefit from the feelings of community they produce.

Should intentional communities based on a hybrid model, drawn from both new towns and communes, be encouraged in this country the impact on families would be great. Housing would be made available to families on the basis of committment to a particular community or philosophy, as well as on the basis of home design and price. Communities could be organized around a specific ideology or a very general ideology, such as humanism or respect for the environment. Unlike communes, the communities would be open to whoever chose them, and unlike new towns, the residents would be choosing their neighbors first and their type of shelter second.

Government support for intentional communities would affect public policy relating to energy, urban growth, poverty, employment, land use, population goals, and education, as well as housing. With planned communities such as the new towns the external level and the family level have reciprocal goals, according to Gottschalk (1975). An example he gives is that the government meets a population distribution goal, the developer makes a profit and the family moves into a good neighborhood. The community level goals are largely met as an expression of the external system.

In intentional communities, however, Gottschalk finds that the "community and the family level, in solidary partnership, are high goal oriented, and the external level is low goal oriented" (1975). The goal has an ideological base which tends to set these communities apart from the external. The elements of the nation which are relevant to the community, are low goal oriented. Gottschalk wrote that the "best proof of this is the fact that the nation tolerates and does not overly attempt to control these deviant communities. Thus the relationship is one of passive generalized cooperation" (1975). This cooperation can be lost if the larger society becomes more goal oriented with respect to intentional communities.

Related Research for Public Policy Decisions

Patricia Harris, Secretary of HUD testified before the Subcommittee on HUD-Independent Agencies of the House Committee on Appropriations in March of 1977. Although she did not ask for new appropriations for the New communities Program for fiscal 1978, she did report that "we have studies that indicate that the new community concept is an energy-saver, that it is a means of housing low and moderate income persons in non-segregated healthy settings while at the same time providing the amenities of those aggregations that we know as urban centers" (Department of Housing and Urban Development. Independent Agencies Appropriations for 1978).

The three-year study reported at the Oversight Hearings provided the government and the academic community with information on which to judge new communities as an alternative to urban sprawl, and to indicate the critical factors in the success of meeting the needs of new community residents. However, the study was not influential enough to keep the New Communities Program from being judged ultimately on financial grounds.

Two urban planners, Edward Kirshner and James Morey (1973) studied the economics of new towns, and concluded that privately developed new towns can be extremely profitable to developers, and that new towns could develop themselves with the profits returning to the residents in the form of inexpensive housing, utilities, health care and more open space.

A small study by Robert Zehner (1974) points to the fact that, when compared to residents of less-planned communities, "new town residents tended to be involved proportionately more often in groups which had a task or action focus than were residents of the least planned areas." His study did not, however, reveal that the level of social participation in new towns is very different from participation in less-planned sub-urban areas. Zehner concluded that "possibly the single most important factor in the new towns which could tend to reduce the emergence of some neighborhood and community-oriented organizations is the continuing active involvement of the planner-developer in local affairs" (1974).

Some research has been done on contemporary communes which would relate to public policy decisions regarding small-scale intentional communities. Berger, Hackett, and Millar found that "a distinctive normative feature of communal life is the desire for economic independence or self-sufficiency" (1972). Regarding work they found that "the avowed and repeatedly voiced ideal is to undertake only those tasks which are intrinsically, and merely instrumentally valued,...Work should be slow, periodic, integrated and not separated from other spheres of life, such as courtship, play, 'visiting', and even philosophical reflection; not, that is to say, 'alienated'" (Berger et. al., 1972).

Kanter, Jaffe, and Weisberg examined the nature of couple and parent-child relationships in communal households. They found that "one of the major effects of a communal environment on a couple seems to be that it shifts their definition of themselves from being 'part of a couple' to 'individual member of the commune.' Couple members thus lose

control over their partner at the same time that they lose their special couple sovereignty over their household" (1975). They also found that parents experience less social control over their children in communes, and that the children are forced to cope with increased rule-making by a wide circle of adults.

Research Needed for Influencing Public Policy

The type of research needed before public policy about intentional communities can be formulated is an examination of the kinds of issues studied in communes and in new towns transposed to an intentional community setting. Various cooperative and experimental housing endeavors, wherever they exist today, should be carefully studied for their effects upon families and the social and economic order.

Creative intentional community research needs to be done in many areas in order to test fully this housing and lifestyle option. Effects on marriages and child-rearing, family violence, the concept of adolescence, sex roles, age stereotypes, race relations, religious tolerance, attitudes toward work and money, cooperative vs. competitive orientation all need to be examined to paint a full picture of a new way of life.

Intentional communities would provide a social laboratory for the testing of new kinds of inter-personal relationships. The government could provide strong incentives for the use of alternative energy sources, energy saving architecture, and ecologically sound land use. It would be useful to know who wants to move to intentional communities and how they perceive the meeting of their expectations. Barbara and Finn Hornum, a husband-wife team of sociologists (1975) suggest that "it would be worthwhile for sociologists to investigate New Town race relations, crime, various personal pathologies, 'normal' life crisis situations--such as divorce, old age, and those dealing with death--in order to determine the differences, if any, which may exist in the frequency and intensity of these problems in traditional urban settlements and New Towns." The same charge could be made for investigating intentional communities.

Perhaps the best test for judging public policy for intentional communities would be to measure their ability to provide high quality, varied housing; alternative modes of transportation; employment opportunities; and increased level of services against the promise of self-actualization, authenticity, and the human support network which can be met in communal living arrangements. If the intentional community model can fulfill these needs, the supporting research will point the way to determining effective public policy in this area.

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ISSUE VI

WILL ENERGY CONSERVATION STUNT INDUSTRIAL GROWTH IN THE UNITED STATES? IMPLICATIONS FOR THE QUALITY OF FAMILY LIFE

American industry is addicted. It resembles a junkie seeking the substance upon which his body is dependent. To stop the energy flow would mean agony to the American system. However, experts claim that we cannot continue in the way we have started. Darkness can be seen at the end of the tunnel that was thought to extend forever. We have encountered real limits to clean air, fresh water, lumber, mineral deposits, tillable land--and other natural resources. Energy supplies, which we had considered to be limitless are finding bounds. Maintaining energy sources, the life-blood of United States industrial production, has become an issue certain to affect the quality of individual and family life.

Industrial energy conservation is a must. World supplies are dwindling. With more and more industrial economies depending on Mideast oil, it is predicted that oil production will peak in the 1980's (Business Week, 1976). Where we once saw abundant natural gas deposits burned off in Texas and Oklahoma favoring the oil beneath, we now find declining reserves.

Industrial energy demands leave our country politically vulnerable. In recent months, the balance of trade payments ran in the red; the finger points at oil imports. And, regardless of cost, friendly relations must be maintained with those countries that enable American industry to pump out the desires of the population.

Coal cannot be expected to carry the load. Production is increasing but not at the rate once expected. In 1973, coal production accounted for more than 17 percent of United States energy needs; in 1977 it satisfied slightly less than 19 percent (Business Week, 1976). Part of the problem lies in the fact that much coal contains too much sulfur to meet environmental standards. Also, much of the coal reserve is found in the western part of the nation, and these states do not want their scenic lands stripped to benefit the East.

Environmental pollution correlates highly with energy use. The industries that are the largest energy users are generally those that produce the greatest volume of waste (4). The following table points out the inefficiency of American industrial energy use.

Table 1. Energy Efficiency of Residential and Commercial Activities

Activity	Efficiency
Residential and commercial:	
Oil or gas heating	5.0%
Air conditioning	4.5
Refrigeration	4.0
Heating water (gas fired)	3.0
Electric resistance heating	2.5
Heating water (electric)	1.5
Industrial:	
Steel production	23%
Aluminum production	13
Cement making	10
Petroleum refining	9
Paper making	0-1

Source: Business Week, 1976, Vol. 2480, p. 66

All industries have added increased energy consumption to their lists of obstacles to environmental clean-up (Business Week, 1976). It is essential that as energy saving measures are put into use environmental controls are maintained. Long term benefits are as important as short term rewards.

Alternate energy forms are not the instant messiahs they were once hoped to be. Solar energy can be adapted to small-scale residential use. Industrial use would require a huge land area. Nuclear power is being questioned due to rising environmental and safety concerns. Wind power is practical only in areas having strong, steady winds as are found in the Midwest where little industry is located. Tidal energy is practical in coastal bay areas but the electricity produced is available only during certain times and for short periods.

Economic Impacts on the American Family

When considering the economic impact of increased industrial energy conservation on the family unit, it is impossible to isolate the economic system as a separate entity, void of relationships with other systems

functioning in the macro-environment. Industrial energy conservation has been previously identified as a technological, social-cultural, political, and environmental issue. The systems model developed by Firebaugh and Deacon (1975) illustrated the inter-relation of the social-cultural, economic and political systems and the macro-habitat (environment) to the family system.

The family may face a number of negative economic consequences (or "costs") due to decreased industrial energy usage. The following impacts on the family unit might be anticipated:

1) the loss of employment by one or more family members due to lowered demands for industrial energy. Among those affected may be truck drivers, engineers, drillers, and miners.
2) the loss of employment by one or more family members due to industry cutting back on jobs dealing with internal energy supply. Such jobs might include general laborers, fuel processors, and maintainance personel.
3) a decline in available consumer goods, particularly those that are non-essential.
4) an increase in price for goods as the demand is increased.
5) a decline in retail outlets if fewer products are produced. Less competition in the marketplace may also drive prices up.
6) emotional strain on family members due to financial uncertainty.
7) cost of re-education or retraining for a new job skill.
8) an increased demand on working families to support those without jobs.
9) an increased control of family economics by the political system. The United States may move toward a more socialistic or communisitic form of government.

On the other hand, the family may accrue a number of benefits if industrial energy consumption is curtailed. The following are anticipated positive impacts:

1) increased job opportunities for family members in research and development of industrial energy sources.
2) less industrial cost for pollution controls if production is lessened. Savings might be passed on to the consumer.
3) tax credits to industries meeting energy guidelines. Again, savings may be passed on to the consumer.
4) balance of United States trade payments comming into the black, thus strengthening the general economy.
5) more interdependance of family members, thus strengthening the family unit.

The total impact on the family will neither be all positive or all negative. The preceding lists merely suggest possibilities of what may come about if industrial energy use is lessened and will, most likely, include elements of each.

A History of American Industrial Use--Impacts on the Family

The relationship of the family to energy sources began with original man. Only with the coming of the Industrial Revolution was man highly concerned with supplying a second agent with energy sources. The author suggests the following time line to trace the history of American industrial energy use and the impacts on the family. (See Table 2)

Table 2. Time Line of History:
Industrial Energy Use and Family Impacts

EVENT OR CONDITION	IMPACT
Early Settling of the United States (Pre-Industrial Revolution)	
1) Primitive energy sources used--usually limited to animal or human power, wood, coal, or fire	1) Families provided own energy sources. Members dependent on each other for survival.
2) Scarcity of manufactured con-goods	2) Family members provided m[illegible] goods. Items were hande[illegible]rted; pride taken in appearance and durability.
3) Energy sources not readily available--often prepared or gathered by hand	3) Very little leisure time for family.
Independence of United States Beginning of Industrial Revolution-late 1800's	
1) Emergence of mass production--goods produced quickly and cheaply	1) Wider range of goods available to families. Less dependent on each other for survival but more leisure time to spend together.
2) Industries located near energy sources	2) Families centered close to industrial centers for employment. Over-crowding resulted.
3) Tremendous increase in energy consumption along with discovery of new energy sources (steam engine, electricity, combustion engine)	3) More family members involved with energy discovery and production.
4) Transportation network mushroomed to provide energy sources to industry	4) Immigration of foreign families to work on railroads. Added to United States "melting pot."

(Table 2, Continued)

5)	Greater variety of industrial jobs	5)	Decline in number of agrarian workers. Increase in number of female and child workers.
6)	Greater national prosperity	6)	Growth in population and increased demand for manufactured goods.
7)	Invention of the automobile	7)	Greater family mobility
	Early 1900's to Present		
1)	Industry produces a dazzling variety of goods	1)	Families almost totally dependent on industry to provide needs. Rarely dependent on each other.
2)	Energy consumption multiplies at a fantastic rate (twice every twenty years)	2)	United States strengthens energy supplies at home and abroad.
3)	Vast number of industrial jobs	3)	Growth of labor force
4)	Population shifting from urban to suburban areas due to sophisticated transport systems	4)	Greater energy and time required to transport people to jobs. Families spending less time together.
5)	Greater earning power	5)	Families demand more energy using devices. Emergence of the two-car family.
6)	Increased national prosperity	6)	Population continues to grow.
7)	Non-fuel uses of fossil fuels	7)	Families provided with inexpensive synthetic goods.
8)	More aluminum and plastic used in manufacture	8)	Goods not as durable but families are able to replace items more often.
	Future United States		
1)	Less demand on energy supplies--increased conservation measures	1)	Increase in "small is beautiful" philosophy. Families may learn to live with less or again produce by hand.
2)	Industrial plants made more energy efficient	2)	May find decrease in number of industrial jobs but increase in types of jobs.
3)	New technology needed to further develop energy sources	3)	Redirection of training programs and in educational systems.
4)	Less environmental pollution	4)	Cleaner environment for families.
5)	Decreased amount of consumer goods; national prosperity slows but does not decline	5)	Population declines; families have fewer material possessions.

Related Research

Much research has been conducted to determine patterns of future industrial growth. Although research findings differ in one aspect or another, reports made after 1974 are generally optimistic. Studies that deal with the economic impacts of conservation agree that the institution of conservation measures will result in modest impacts on the economy, but will result in an increase in employment. Studies conducted before 1974 tended to be less hopeful for one main reason: research was conducted by the petroleum industry, government officials, and others whose experiences and concerns were mostly with supply, not conservation. Generally speaking, their projections were extrapolations from growth patterns of the past when energy was cheap and getting cheaper in real terms. Nor did they see much elasticity of demand with rising prices (1).

The first major study to stress need for conservation was conducted in 1974 by the Ford Foundation. The study was highly criticized because it stated that the United States could reach zero energy growth with little damage to the economic system. Real income would be 4 percent less than would occur without conservation but would still be above present levels. The study also concluded that the reduced energy use would cause a slight increase in the demand for labor.

The Ford Foundation study further noted that the manufacturing sector of the economy conserved energy in times of declining or stable energy prices. Greater savings are now believed likely because of the fear of shortages and possible government action.

In September 1976, the Institute for Energy Analysis of Oak Ridge Associated University came out with a study using new data and assumptions about industrial trends. It concluded that the United States could satisfy its needs with 101-126 quads of energy by the year 2000. This figure undercut that of the Ford study. The Oak Ridge study agreed that the GNP would grow, but not at a booming rate.

A study being conducted by the National Academy of Sciences sees the possibility that consumption at the end of the century may be even lower--possible in the seventy quad range. This conclusion has been echoed by the Department of Commerce, whose analysts stress that energy consumption will have to continue climbing from now until the late 1980's before it can turn downward again, partly because of the slow pace at which energy-using machines wear out and get replaced.

The most comprehensive study of the impact of energy conservation on the economy presently available is the Hudson-Jorgenson (H-J) model. The model is comprised of two parts: a model of the United States economy and a sub-model of the interation of energy and non-energy industries in the United States economy. The H-J model reaches the same conclusion as the previous three studies: a decline in industrial energy use will not devastate industrial growth.

So far industry has kept up with what research has indicated. Of all the energy consuming sectors, industry is the only one that consumed

less energy in 1976 than it did in 1973. Industry consumed 6.2 percent fewer British Themal Units (BTU's) while producing the same volume of goods residential-commercial and transportation both increased.

Examples of industries following conservation measures are many. Exxon, General Motors, IBM, DuPont, 3M and Hilton Hotels all report significant energy and dollar savings. American Telephone and Telegraph Company (AT&T) boasts that it will finish the ten years following the Arab oil embargo with zero energy growth and still maintain normal business growth (Business Week, 1976). Since 1973 AT&T has cut total energy consumption by 8.7 percent and energy consumption per installed telephone by 20 percent. General Motors has cut the BTU's needed to manufacture a car by 13 percent.

The widely held belief that economic growth and energy consumption are directly related is not true. In absolute terms, both the amount of energy consumed and the real gross national product of the United States have increased steadily since World War II, but the number of BTU's required to produce a dollar of economic output has been trending down (Business Week, 1976).

Indication points to further improvements in the GNP. Energy conservation will not stunt United States industrial growth.

Recent research studies agree that industry can utilize less energy and still grow. However, more research needs to be conducted to determine specific industrial processes and designs for achieving this end. The United States falls way behind Europe and Japan in industrial efficiency. For example, in West Germany the industries of food, chemical production, petroleum, coal products, concrete production and primary metals, use 35 percent less energy per dollar of sales than the same industries in the United States. The French and the United States use identical processes to refine aluminum. But, the French operate the smelting pot on a reduced electrical current. Production takes slightly longer, but the French expend 22 percent less energy per ton of aluminum (1).

Sweden is another country that excells over the United States. Through a more efficient industrial system Sweden uses 40 percent less energy to produce each dollar of GNP. However, where the price of Swedish energy is the same as American, they are no more efficient in their production.

Engineers need to examine the furnaces, ovens, smelters, and many other industrial devices that drink up energy. "Co-generation", an older idea, needs to be taken off the shelf and adapted to the modern industrial scene. Through co-generation electricity is produced along with heat or steam. The heat or steam is piped and used for other purposes. This method is used to stretch available fuels, and reduces pollution and capital expenditure.

Many experts feel that further developments should be made in construction of the industrial structure. Architects are experimenting with heating systems that use body and computer heat. Some plants are designed to make use of solar rays and heat produced by lighting systems. AT&T in Basking Ridge, New Jersey does not have to start its boiler

until the temperature falls below 10°F outside. IBM of Chicago has an energy bill of 40 percent less than comparable non-efficient structures. These examples show that it is possible to develop such energy saving means.

Yes, it can be done but all of industry needs to be involved in research and development to make the most efficient use of the remaining energy reserves and to further develop new sources. The quality of family life depends on it.

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ISSUE VII

SHOULD THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT PROVIDE TAX CREDITS FOR ENERGY SAVING HOME IMPROVEMENTS?

Legislative History

World energy supply problems date back to the beginning of the history of mankind. Nomadic tribes, cavemen and whole civilizations moved from one place to another as shortages of wood, fertile soil, food or water developed. Those who did not move learned to adapt or to conserve what they had.

The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) oil embargo of 1973 (Mancke, 1977) made the world community painfully aware of the insecurity of its most widely used fuel. The first response to the oil crisis seemed constructive. Governments everywhere took steps to conserve energy supplies. As the world's largest consumer of energy, the United States was in the forefront of efforts to forestall the cataclysms then being predicted in many quarters. Then, with the lifting of the embargo and the disappearance of long lines at gas stations, the official sense of urgency, along with public concern about the energy problem seemed to dissipate.

The Federal Government accepts that an energy problem exists but there is little agreement about possible solutions. Many energy related bills have been introduced to the United States Congress. As early as 1951, Congressman Murdock introduced a bill entitled "Research and Development Leading to a Commercial Wind-Electric Plant". However a review of legislation involving tax credits for energy conservation shows that such specific measures are recent developments.

President Ford, in his State of the Union message in 1975, requested among other energy measures, a fifteen percent tax credit to homeowners for thermal efficiency improvements and subsidies to low income and elderly homeowners for thermal efficiency improvements. On March 1, of that same year the Congressional Democratic leadership proposed an Economy and Energy Program; program goals included establishment of building standards and financial incentives for improvement of existing structures.

The Energy Conservation and Production Act of 1976 has been the foundation for energy legislation. It provided for conservation standards for new buildings and a weatherization program for low income families. On April 20, 1977, President Carter announced a national energy plan that included increased funding for low income weatherization, insulation and solar energy tax credits and mandatory conservation standards for home appliances. A number of energy conservation techniques are available which can materially alter residential structures. The principal ones considered in energy tax credit legislation and the principal techniques examined by the National Bureau of Standards in 1975 include: attic, wall and floor insulation, duct insulation in unheated areas, storm doors and windows, weatherstripping,

vapor barriers, clock thermostats, flue dampers and burner modifications.

The following is a simplified digest of 1977 legislative efforts related to tax credits for energy saving home improvements:

1/6/77 H.R. 1466 - The Homeowners Energy Conservation Act offered homeowners a credit of twenty-five percent of amounts paid or incurred for the installation of more effective insulation and heating equipment in existing residential structures. Referred to the Committee on Ways and Means.

1/10/77 S. 97 - The Energy Conservation Tax Credit for Residences and Small Business Amendment was to provide tax credits for the installation of insulation and solar and wind energy equipment in residences. Referred to the Committee on Finance.

1/12/77 S. 198 - The Residential Insulation Credit Act was to allow tax credit for expenditures for insulation of a taxpayer's own residence. Referred to the Committee on Finance.

5/2/77 H.R. 6831 later to become H.R. 8444 - The National Energy Act would offer residential homeowners a twenty-five percent tax credit for the first eight-hundred dollars and a fifteen percent tax credit for the next one-thousand-four-hundred dollars spent on approved conservation measures.

Due to the extensiveness of energy problems and the diversity of opinions on tax credits as a conservation incentive, the energy legislative process has been quite complex. The National Energy Act Phase I was attached to House Bill 5037. As of October 13, 1977 the final action for the energy tax credit legislation was to refer it to committees or conferees.

Conservation and Production of Energy

The basic controversy facing the United States Congress is whether to pass energy legislation on conservation and reductions in consumption or on incentives to increase energy supplies. Congress needs to provide funds for research in alternative methods of energy production involving renewable resources. Conservation measures must be taken by residential and industrial energy users. In the residential sector federal tax credits for energy saving home improvements are needed.

Herbert B. Cohn (Manke, 1977) said, "There is a high degree of correlation between an adequate and reliable energy supply and our economy, employment and standard of living. Abundant energy has been essential to the economic development of the United States. It is even more essential now. Without it our nation cannot sustain the high standard of living that most of our citizens enjoy. More important, an

inadequacy of energy sources will impose a major obstacle to improvements in the standard of living of our economically disadvantaged. Similarly, the well-being of the industrialized world and the possibilities for an improved standard of living in the developing countries are dependent on adequate energy supplies."

Part of the controversy surrounding energy tax credit legislation is the issue of whether the poor would be discriminated against and whether tax credits would impact upon the environment (Manke, 1977). H. Peter Metzer said that, "It is far more likely that our children will die in a war for energy than from pollution that energy causes." Edward Teller observed that, "A major aspect of the environmental problem is pollution by poverty...no environment problem is more important or is harder to relieve, than world-wide poverty. Energy is one of the keys to solving the problem."

In order to understand the need for the United States to curtail its use of energy, it is helpful to look at a world comparison of consumption and population (See Table 1).

Table 1. 1968 World Energy Consumption

Region	Total consumption (trillion BTU)	Population (million)	Consumption per capita (million BTU)
North America	68,594	220.0	309.9
Canada	6,162	20.8	296.3
United States	62,432	201.2	310.3
Western Europe	41,584	350.6	118.6
Oceania	2,240	18.3	122.4
Latin America	8,034	267.4	30.0
Asia (excluding Communist)	16,757	1,182.7	14.2
Japan	8,691	101.1	86.0
Other Asia	8,066	1,081.6	7.5
Africa	3,343	336.5	9.9
U.S.S.R. and Communist Eastern Europe	39,843	341.9	116.5
U.S.S.R.	28,628	237.8	120.4
Eastern Europe	11,215	104.1	107.7
Communist Asia	9,342	765.2	12.2
World	189,737	3,484.5	54.5

Source: Darmstadter, J. "Energy Consumption: Trends and Patterns," Energy Economic Growth and the Environment, Washington, D.C., 1971.

In 1975, there were 72.5 million occupied housing units in the United States (United States Bureau of Census, 1975). Residential energy use varies substantially by region and source of energy. Overall it is estimated that residential and commercial buildings use 31.6 percent of all energy in the United States. In view of the substantial share of energy used by the residential sector, conservation efforts in this area could reduce the overall energy consumption in the United States.

When considering the use of tax credits as an incentive to conserve energy, it is helpful to look at the way families spend their household incomes. Studies of family energy expenditures show that low income families spend larger percentages of their incomes on energy than families with higher income. Families are responsible for both direct and indirect consumption of energy (See Tables 2 and 3).

Table 2. Percentage of Family Income Spent on Energy

Income Status	Average Household Income	Average Annual BTU (Million Per House-Hold)	Average Annual Cost Per Household	Percentage of Total Income Spent on Energy
Poor	$ 2,500	207	$379	15.2
Lower Middle	8,000	294	572	7.2
Upper Middle	14,600	403	832	5.9
Well-off	24,500	478	994	4.1

Source: Ford Foundation: Energy Policy Project. A Time To Choose: America's Energy Future. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1974 (from the Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies Lifestyle and Energy Surveys conducted for Ford Foundation).

Table 3. Annual Indirect Use of Energy

Income Status	Average Household Income	Total Indirect Household Energy Consumption (million BTU)
Poor	$ 2,500	353
Lower middle	8,000	549
Upper middle	14,000	843
Well-off	24,500	1,095

Source: Ford Foundation; Energy Policy Project. A Time to Choose: America's Energy Future. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1974 (from the Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies Lifestyle and Energy Surveys conducted for Ford Foundation).

Some individuals and organizations who oppose tax credits for energy saving home improvements feel that credits do not benefit the poor. Tables 2 and 3 indicate that higher income families use more energy both directly and indirectly than do poor families. Therefore, if upper income families could be induced to use energy saving home improvements, substancial energy savings could occur. This could result in more available energy and could help keep prices down. Also, many poor people rent household units and pay for utilities. If owners of rental properties could be persuaded to use insulation and other energy saving home improvement measures because of tax breaks, the utility costs to renters might be reduced.

The extent to which insulation and storm doors and windows are utilized is different for various family income levels (See Table 4). Note that a point exists where energy saving methods decline as income increases.

Related Research

Much research has been done in the field of energy but the findings have had little impact due to the uncertainty of national energy goals. In 1972 the National Science Foundation funded Resources for the Future, Inc. to study the needs for social science research in the field of energy and to suggest the contents and design for a comprehensive program (Landsbert, 1974). In a report from Resources for the Future, Inc., it is indicated that major research efforts have been made in the following areas:

Table 4. Insulation of Homes by Family Income

1975 Income of families living in single-housing units	With all or some storm windows %	With all or some storm doors %	With attic insulation %
Under $2,000	39.6	43.6	49.9
$2,000 to $3,000	44.0	49.5	47,3
$3,000 to $4,000	47.6	51.0	56.3
$4,000 to $5,000	50.2	55.9	56.7
$5,000 to $6,000	49.3	53.2	61.8
$6,000 to $7,000	49.1	54.6	64.5
$7,000 to $8,000	52.3	56.8	65.3
$8,000 to $10,000	52.7	58.3	70.0
$10,000 to $12,500	58.3	63.8	78.1
$12,500 to $15,000	59.0	65.8	80.0
$15,000 to $25,000	62.8	66.8	85.5
$25,000 to $35,000	62.7	64.4	88.7
$35,000 and over	61.6	60.4	89.5

Source: United States Bureau of the Census, 1975 Annual Housing Survey, unpublished tabulations (May, 1977).

Residential/Commercial

1. Building insulation to reduce heating and cooling needs
2. Heat pumps or fossil-fired heating systems rather tha resistance heat
3. Energy-efficient air conditioners
4. Total energy systems to provide both heat and electricity
5. Energy performance of appliances
6. Attention to lighting levels

Many facets of energy conservation in the residential sector needs to be researched. Some of the more pressing areas according to Resources for the Future, Inc. (Landsberg, 1974) include:

1. Feasibility of permitting a reduced down payment to debt ratio in mortgage financing as a function of capitalized net savings in energy costs
2. Feasibility of mandatory disclosure by builders of annual estimated energy operating cost under alternate fuel and power prices
3. A study of the effect of the tax system on conservation, particularly as it related to the relationship between the acquisition, depreciation and transfer of real estate, on the one hand and the choice of energy systems on the other
4. Devising uniform energy performance standards in building codes which regard the entire building as a system
5. Effective ways to alert consumers to the monetary losses arising from inefficient energy-using appliances, particularly air conditioning units
6. Methods of inducing owners of existing buildings to increase insulation standards, perhaps with the assistance of public utilities

A large research area that appears to have received little attention is the attitude of the populace. What do the people see as energy needs and solutions? Which aspects of their lifestyles are they most willing to change to conserve energy? What are their opinions on tax credits for homeowners as opposed to tax incentives for searching for deposits of non-renewable energy resources? Which types of energy saving changes in building design would people be most willing to live with? Are consumers willing to pay higher prices for goods that are made to last longer? Would people be willing to make energy cuts if they had more information about how to do so (such as limiting appliance use during peak load hours)? Would people be willing to use alternate methods of transportation? Which methods of mass media education would reach the most people and cause changes in behavior?

Defining Conservation

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines conservation as careful preservation and protection as well as the planned management of a natural resource to prevent exploitation, destruction or neglect. Alvin Kaufman (1977) questioned this definition. He believes preserv-

ation and protection implies the postponement of consumption and that is not feasibile as we must consume to survive. He feels that to produce and consume energy materials is to exploit and destroy, because once used these materials no longer exist in an energy form. Kaufman says that conservation behavior should include a trade off between energy-saving actions and other societal wants in order to result in an optimization of the quality of life. He defines conservation as a series of energy-saving procedures over the long term that will optimize society's use of all its economic and social resources. The overall economic effects of measures meeting this definition will be either nonexistent or beneficial.

Schurr and Darmstadter (1976) observed that perception of conservation is a product of one's value system. The subject can be broken into two major conceptual groups: those who regard conservation as a matter of ethics and those who regard it as a matter of efficiency. Those who take the ethical position start from the premise that energy resources are finite and are necessary for human survival. Therefore, these materials should be carefully husbanded to provide for the needs of the generations to come. On the other side of this issue are those who define conservation as the reduction of energy growth rates in a manner that results in the dollar benefits to society from the energy saving exceeding the dollar cost needed to achieve the saving. This desire for efficiency is rooted in economic theory and in history.

One definition that seems to encompass parts of many other proposals defines energy conservation as a measure that results in short term and long term reduction of an energy growth rate. This is probably most useful for convincing people that tax credits for energy saving home improvements are needed.

Influencing the Issue

At this period in time Congress has not passed Phase I of President Carter's National Energy Plan. At the time the vote was taken one of the reasons given for lack of action was that many problems and solutions concerning energy conservation were deleted. Since that time Secretary of Energy Schlesinger and President Carter have introduced Phase II of the National Energy Plan. Energy Supply Initiatives have been released by the Department of Energy. Perhaps these will convince those who opposed the original plan that the first plan does need to be voted upon favorable.

The key to influencing policy on federal tax cuts for energy saving home improvements is to influence senators and representatives involved with H.R. 5037. One of the methods that might be used is a letter writing campaign to the conferees. But before citizens attempt to influence legislation they must be informed. Newspapers, magazines and professional journals can be sources of recent information. However people must be knowledgeable enough to question 'facts.' Citizens can contact their congressmen or women for information. One excellent source of information related to this issue is the Office of Energy Conservation in the Department of the Interior.

Another tactic citizens can use is lobbying. One approach might be to persuade insulation manufacturers to lobby for the passage of H.R. 5037. Strong, well-organized conservation groups could lobby for the same purposes. Citizens can also encourage local and state organizations to which they belong to write letters to their legislators. Some well informed citizens can provide educational programs for the general public.

Attachment A is an outline for the suggested Administrative Structure for Energy Policymaking (1977). Such a structure of necessity is headed by the President. Congress is aided by input from technical advisors and lay people who also will be affected by policy development.

It is advisable to understand the administrative organization of the Department of Energy or Energy Commission of one's state. Attachment B is an organizational chart of Kentucky's Department of Energy and a list of department heads involved in the major function of energy control in Kentucky. Anyone interested in obtaining factual information should have these references.

Assuming that the energy departments are organized on the national, state and local government levels as suggested earlier in this discourse and that passage of H.R. 5037 occured, we would next need to understand the agencies best suited to handle funding, application and education that would be necessary following such passage. Obviously the Internal Revenue Service would be responsible for handling the federal tax credit as it was prepared to do in 1977. As was outlined in the introduced legislation, utility companies and possibly Federal Housing Authority and Comprehensive Employment and Training Act would be involved in survey work and in insulating existing housing stock. Federal Housing Authority would be also involved in the insulating problems of new homes.

The Cooperative Extension Service and the Energy Extension Service (a pilot energy program in ten states) seem to be logical dispensing agencies for education information. They have existing programs in natural resources, family education, rural development and 4-H youth development.

Figure 7 depicts a model system by which materials related to methods of using tax credits in a positive manner for retrofitting existing housing stock could be researched, written and disseminated.

The public issue of energy conservation and tax credits is complex and controversial. The intent of this report has been to show that energy conservation is a pressing governmental need and that tax credits for energy saving home improvements can be a viable option. Congressman Carroll Hubbard has stated, "I believe that any energy policy must address both conservation and the development of new energy resources. There must be an adequate economic incentive if we are to fully utilize our existing energy resources, as well as develop new resources, such as solar power. Tax incentives and credits can encourage the private sector to meet our energy needs within the parameters of the free enterprise system, and without excessive government involvement."

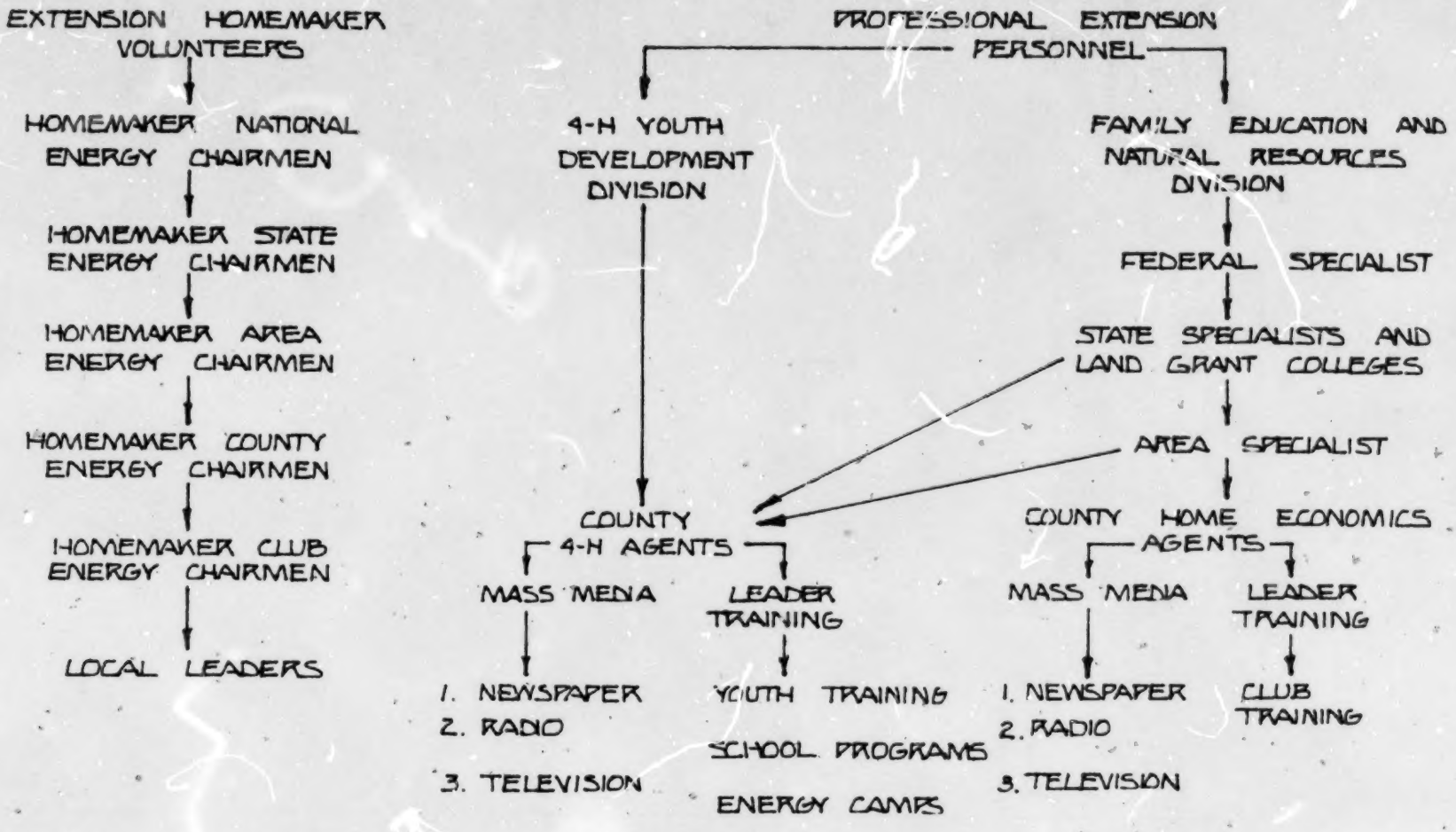

Figure 7. Proposed Model for Disseminating Energy Tax Credit Information for the Cooperative Extension Service

Schumacher (1975), leaves us with the admonition, "We shrink back from the truth if we believe that the destructive forces of the modern world can be brought under control simply by mobilizing more resources. Pollution must be brought under control and mankind's population and consumption of resources must be steered toward a permanent and sustainable equilibrium."

Lifestyles must be simplified and people must understand the long range benefits of conserving. Availability of tax credits for energy saving home improvements is a small step, but a step in the right direction.

Attachment A

Energy Policymaking Administration
President and Congress
National Energy Coordinator

Energy Research and Development Administration

Federal Energy Administration

FEDERAL LEVEL

Department of

1. Transportation
2. The Interior
3. Defense
4. Commerce
5. Housing and Urban Renewal

Environmental Protection Agency

Commissions

1. Federal Power
2. Nuclear Regulatory

General Services Administrator

111

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Attachment A (cont.)

STATE LEVEL

DEPARTMENT OF HOUSING

1. Lighting levels in public buildings
2. Thermal efficiency and insulation standards in new buildings

DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

2. Programs to promote car pooling
2. Driver energy education program
3. Mandatory right turn on red signal

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

1. Energy conservation curriculum
2. Energy audits for state's school facilities

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

1. Free computer energy audits
2. Energy conservation tabliods
3. Shares responsibility for item 6 - Department of Energy
4. Promotes and investigates energy efficient farming practices
5. Teach wise use of residential energy

DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY

1. Pilot energy audits in chosen facilities
2. Provide energy management assistance to small businesses
3. Provide thermographic surveys in Jefferson County - pilot infrared survey
4. Mandatory intergovernmental coordination
5. Mandatory continuing public education program
6. Mandatory energy audit development, auditor certification and certified energy audit promotion for buildings.

DEPARTMENT FOR FINANCE AND ADMINISTRATION

1. Energy audits of state government facilities
2. Mandatory procurement practices for state and local government
   Life cycle purchasing policies for energy consuming articles

Attachment A (cont.)

LOCAL LEVEL

LOCAL OFFICE OF FEDERAL AGENCIES	LOCAL UTILITIES
1. Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation	1. Gas
2. Soil Conservation Service	2. Electric
3. Farmers Home Administration	
4. Transportation Department	
5. Cooperative Extension Service	
6. Area Development District	

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ISSUE VIII

SHOULD RETIREMENT BE MANDATORY?

Legislative History

Mandatory retirement is an issue that affects everyone from the person forced to retire, his family, the place of employment, society, to the economic well being of the country. The political history of this issue can be traced to 1889. In that year Chancellor Otto Von Bismarck of Germany pushed through the Old Age and Survivors Pension Act. This legislation represented the first time a government in the Western world assumed obligation for the financial support of its older citizens and raised the need to define "old age". The choice of age sixty-five as the age for retirement was made at that time. In 1908 Great Britain passed similar legislation and in 1935 the United States passed the Social Security Act. Private companies instituted private pension plans for retirement at age sixty-five in 1950 (Murray, 1977).

The Age Discrimination Act of 1967 protected people between forty and sixty-five years against job discrimination because of age and promoted their employment based on ability. In 1975 the Age Discrimination Act prohibited discrimination on the basis of age in programs or activities receiving federal financial assistance. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act became law on April 6, 1978. It banned mandatory retirement in the federal sector and protected workers from mandatory retirement to age seventy in the private sector. Until the passage of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act in 1978 public policy defined the age of retirement as sixty-five. It then became seventy. The choice of age sixty-five was an arbitrary one.

Social History

The social history of retirement dates back much further that the legislative history. The human life span has increased over the years due to advances in medicine, nutrition and production, but for many years persons were lucky to live to age fifty. Most people never had opportunities to retire. If persons did survive to old age they were taken care of by family, but were still expected to be contributing members, however small the contributions. The United States was settled by persons who believed that all should work as long as they were able to work.

Since 1935, when the Social Security Act was passed, the modern American society has been exposed to the idea of retirement. Americans as a nation have long valued older citizens. These persons can be contributing members of society and to the family. Grandparents have brought social cohesion to the family. Many parents and their children stayed in the same town or geographic area most of their lives; they gathered as a family group at a grandparent's home for Sunday dinners, holidays and birthdays.

Today we are a migratory society and the nuclear family may be spread from one coast to the other. Today the information once gained from grandparents is gained by television, radio, and other media (Jonas and Joanas, 1973). Many no longer value the elderly and what they have to offer. When people retire early they often search for a second youth. If they continue working until forced to retire, they may try to maintain a youthful image. Unlike Orientals, Americans do not usually value or honor the elderly once they cease to serve a specific function. Mandatory retirement forces many people who are able and who want to work to become for the most part non-functioning members of society.

Prior to the passage of the Social Security Act and the emergence of private pension plans, only the wealthy could afford not to work. The common worker was not able to save much money; certainly not enough to allow him to retire. As the economy improved due to increased production, higher wages and increased consumer demand for products, more workers were covered by Social SEcurity and/or private pensions. The financial prospects of retirement took on a new and more realistic dimension. The stage was set for introducing the practice of mandatory retirement at age sixty-five (O'Meara, 1977).

Mandatory retirement is a family economic issue because it affects all members of the family. At retirement there is a decrease in the amount of income which can cause a change in lifestyle. If the retirement income is low, children may have to help support their parents. This may be a hardship on the children. The parents may no longer be able to afford their own home. Moving in with a child may be the only solution, sometimes causing a loss of privacy for all and loss of independence for the parents. Many retired people can only "make it" if they get additional help from the government. If the trend to lower birth rates (a drop from 2.1 to 1.75 children per family) continues, by 2025 for every one hundred in the eighteen to sixty-four age group, there will be thirty-two people past age sixty-five in the United States. Today there are eighteen past sixty-five for every one hundred of working age. Some of the consequences of this population pattern will be:

1. Thirty one cents out of every dollar will go to support retired people (Social Security rates will increase).
2. Social Security deficits will be filled by increased income taxes.
3. Social Security benefits might be cut.
4. If people are allowed to work to seventy (and beyond) this will lengthen the period they pay Social Security taxes and reduce the number of years they live to collect benefits ("Social Security Retirement at Seventy", 1976).

Dr. Harold Sheppard has pointed out that between now and 2010 those in the population who are eighty-five and over will increase by one hundred and eleven percent while the total population sixty-five and

over will increase by forty-nine percent. Evidence indicates that a large and fast growing number of retirees and near-retirees will have one or both parents still living (Murray, 1977).

Before 1935 the United States didn't have a public policy on retirement. The United States has been both an agricultural and an industrial society. Retirement is the creation of industry. In the early days of American society, homestead land was given or sold inexpensively to people with the assumption that they would develop it and make it agriculturally productive. When homesteaders began to grow old they usually had children who assumed responsibility for them. Property rights made it possible for older homesteaders to control what the farm produced and they could not be forced to leave. If one owned property, then one could keep the demands of work to a minimum and still claim the rewards of ownership (Atchley, 1976). As the country became more industrialized, people began to live longer. Industrialization divorced management from ownership and put a lower premium on experience. Corporations and unions developed, corporations in favor of private interests and unions for public interests. Government was the mediator between the two.

The family was no longer the unit of production. Industry demanded that the individual produce to minimum standards; the demands of the job were no longer adjusted to the capabilities of the individual. Thus the idea evolved that people should be relieved of their duties in old age because they were no longer capable of meeting minimum standards. Prior to this, the work a person did affected his/her lifestyle; there was no separation of work and play. Industrialization caused jobs to be a separate part of life, cut off from family and community. Jobs were a means of gaining income rather than something one's life revolved around. Work began to lose its position in society's value system. The economy produced enough to support a sizeable number of adults without jobs; the size of the labor force began to be restricted; unions and the rise of government made pension systems possible. People began to accept gradually and without guilt the concept of retirement as an earned right. Industrialization and retirement are closely related in the United States. Where workers were dependent on themselves and their families, the advent of a public policy on retirement meant that the workers became dependent on the government, employers and lastly themselves.

Public policy, from the passage of the Social Security Act to the passage of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act on April 6, 1978, has stressed retirement. The people of the nation came to regard retirement as the accepted thing and many were led to believe this would be the best time of their lives. Corporations and unions played up their pension programs and the government offered Social Security. Retirement communities sprang up all over the country. People were told they deserved their golden years in which they could travel, pursue hobbies and generally enjoy life. All of this was unwritten public policy.

A trend toward early retirement began, made possible by an amendment to the Social Security Act which allowed retirees (men and women) to receive reduced benefits at age sixty-two (Murray, 1977). Other reasons for this trend vary with the individual and depend on such factors as health, nature of the job, anticipated level of retirement income, level of financial responsibilities and employer's action. Early retirement is a way for employers to control the size and character of the work-force. It also helps cope with technological changes, mergers, plant closings and production cut-backs. Many companies make early retirement attractive especially to managers and high level executives in order to give the younger person a chance to climb the corporate ladder. Many families have found retirement or early retirement results in financial and emotional strain.

As of April 6, 1978 public policy has changed. Seventy became the age of mandatory retirement. This will have an impact today and in the future. Pension and employee benefit plans are being revised. Hiring and firing policies are being rewritten. Business is divided. Some feel the country's economy will be endangered and the cost of the legislation will be slower growth in real income. They feel the older worker will be less productive and will hurt America's competitive position in the world's economy. Others in the business world are not so concerned and feel the impact won't be noticeable ("New Retirement Rules", 1977).

The unique problems of the aged members of society are major issues today. The new public policy should help utilize the skills and knowledge of the elderly and may enable them to retain much of their self-respect and purposes for life. The new policy should help the elderly to feel independent and able to care for themselves longer. They may also be able to buy more goods and services on full incomes.

Related Research

In 1966 Ash studied how the concept of retirement was legitimized among steelworkers. He found that in 1951 retirement was justified only if the individual was physically unable to continue, but by 1960 retirement was considered a reward for a lifetime of work. Thus the concept changed from something to be avoided to a sought after reward (Atchley, 1976). A 1965 study by the Department of Labor found that in factory work involving substantial physical effort, productivity decreased substantially after age sixty-five. In office work, productivity declined little, if at all, to age sixty and only slightly after that; those who were age sixty-five had the best productivity record. The Bureau of Business Management of the University of Illinois conducted three studies with workers past sixty years of age who held retailing, clerical and middle management jobs. The conclusions were that the majority of older workers were as good as, or superior to, average younger workers on absenteeism, work quality, work volume and human relations (Colamasce, 1977). Abraham Monk studied seventy-three male executives and professionals whose ages ranged from fifty to sixty years. Forty worked for industry and thirty-three worked in a state department of mental health as psychiatrists. The majority, seventy percent of the mental health group and sixty percent of executives, had negative ideas about retirement. These negative ideas were:

1. Work orientation - They considered work as good in itself - a basic part of life without which the rest had little meaning.
2. Loss of options - Retirement was seen as an end rather than a beginning. It brought rejection, lack of recognition and death.
3. Financial problems - The system was a failure because retirement meant literal starvation for most people.

Two semi-positive ideas were expresed about retirement

1. Time to pursue leisure possibilities.
2. Freedom from organizational strain/stress - They wanted to work but retirement removed them from the stresses of the job, increased work loads and pressure from younger men (Horn, 1975).

Most research deals with the age at which people retire but Back and Guptill studied the impact of retirement on the self. They concluded that the decline in perception of self results almost entirely from loss of work (Atchley, 1976).

Research seems to be divided for and against mandatory retirement. The current legislation raising the age of mandatory retirement to seventy seems to have positive and negative impacts. People realize this is an important issue that needs to be resolved, but public policy has not resolved it, only moved the mandatory age of retirement to seventy. Policy makers are as divided as the research.

The American Medical Association (AMA) has stated that there is ample clinical evidence that physical and emotional problems can be precipitated or exacerbated by denial of employment opportunities. Few physicians deny that a direct relationship exists between enforced idleness and poor health (Murray, 1977).

Research is needed in many areas related to the issue of mandatory retirement. The trend has been to retirement at earlier ages than sixty-five years but with the increase in the age of mandatory retirement, will the age of early retirement for some increase by five years also? Research is needed for flexible work schedules, the affect of retirement on the nation's economy and productivity, effects of retirement on the individual and how to deal with these effects.

The people-politicians, industrialists and labor leaders who have created retirement policies on a mandatory basis aren't always subject to these policies. There are fields-medicine, law, politics, entertainment, the arts and the self-employed where retirement age is the decision of the individual. There is no evidence that the elderly in these fields are not as capable as the young. Health, Education and Welfare Secretary Joseph Califano, Jr. says the nation should offer incentives for elderly employees to work beyond retirement. "It makes little sense - social, economic or common sense - for the skills and

talents of millions of healthy older citizens to be wasted." Califano said there should be more incentives like last year's Social Security amendments which hike employee retirement benefits by three percent for each year of work after age sixty-five ("Job Incentives for Elderly Urged", 1978).

The issue of mandatory retirement will face most people someday. For some retirement will be a necessity, for others it will be a personal choice; for yet others it will be mandated. All people mature and all grow old (physically, mentally and emotionally) at different rates. As difficult as flexible retirement could be for industry and the government, it would be one solution. Public policy on retirement should be flexible. At eighteen, young people are eligible to vote but many of them do not choose to do so. At seventy years of age people are eligible to retire but many do not wish to do so. We do not force the young to vote; why should we force the elderly to retire? Older persons should be able to enjoy the freedom of choice.

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SEMINAR PARTICIPANTS

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SELECTED RESOURCES

Books and Monographs:

Butler, Phyllis and Dorothy Gray. Everywoman's Guide to Political Awareness. Millbrae, California: Les Femmes, 1976. An overview of political activity as it relates to women; suggestions for involvement in the political processes which concern nearly every facet of society.

Focus on Families: Selected Articles from the Journal of Home Economics. American Home Economics Association, 1977. 15 articles on issues of vital concern to families selected from recent issues of the Journal of Home Economics. Also includes a "Resources Review" which consists of related reviews of articles and books. $4.00 from AHEA. Also available: Focus on Aging #5104-9, $4.00.

George Washington University Institute for Educational Leadership. Family Impact Seminar: an Introduction, free and Interim Report of the Family Impact Seminar, April, 1978, $2.00 and Toward an Inventory of Federal Programs with Direct Impact on Families: Staff Report - Family Impact Seminar, February, 1978, $3.00. Available from: Publications Coordinator, Institute for Educational Leadership, Suite 310, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 (make checks payable to George Washington University).

Hawkins, Leo F. The Impact of Policy Decisions on the Family, June, 1978. The purpose of this publication is to provide extension agents and community leaders with background material for conducting educational programs related to policy decisions and family environment. Available from the North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service, Raleigh, North Carolina.

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Kamerman, Sheila B., "Developing a Family Impact Statement." An occasional paper from the Foundation for Child Development, 345 East 46th Street, New York, NY 10017.

Kentucky Goals Study. Issues Facing Kentucky. Lexington, KY: Department of Sociology, 1976.

Selected Resources (cont.)

Booklets on problem areas can be obtained from S-205 Agricultural Science Center - North, U of K, Lexington, KY 40506, 606-257-3766.

Minnesota Family Study Center. Family Impact Series. A series expounding various topics of family policy. Titles include:

Report No. 1: "The Writing of State Level Family Impact Statements: A Preliminary Report"
Report No. 2: "An Annotated Bibliography for Family Impact Analysis"
Report No. 3: "Taxonomies for Family Impact Analysis"
Report No. 4: "Family Impact Analysis and Family Policy Advocate: The Process of Analysis"
Report No. 5: "Family Well-Being and Quality of Life: Humanistic Concerns of the Family Impact Analysis"
Report No. 6: "Family Impact Analysis (FIA): Application to Child Custody Determination"
Report No. 7: "The Political Context of Family Impact Analysis"
Report No. 8: "The Family Dimension of Occupational Participation"
Report No. 9: "Issues in the Development of Family Indicators"
Report No.10: "Up-Date: An Annotated Bibliography for Family Impact Analysis"
Report No.11: "Reassessing the Role of Public Policies in Relation to Family Functions"
Report No.12: "Beyond Concept: Towards Family Policy"
Report No.13: "Legislators' Attitudes Toward Family Policy: A Report of a Survey"

Available from: Family Study Center
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

Nelson, Helen E., Liz Allen and Kit McNally. A Guide to Consumer Action. Washington, D.C.: Office of Consumer Education, U. S. Office of Education, 1978.
Single copies available free from Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, CO 81009.

Nye, F. Ivan and Gerald W. McDonald, "Family Policy Research: Emergent Models and Some Theoretical Issues." The paper was prepared for the Theory Development and Methods Workshop of the annual meeting of the National Council on Family Relationships, Philadelphia, 1978. It serves as a survey of the existing approaches to the developing area of family policy research. Available from: Department of Sociology, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida.

The President's National Urban Policy Report. August, 1978. Available from the Publications Department, The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D. C. 20032.

Selected Resources (cont.)

Rice, Robert M. American Family Policy: Content and Context. New York: Family Service Association of America, 1977. Discussion of the impact of the American political and corporate systems on family life and the need for a comprehensive, coherent, and explicit family policy in the United States as a basis for developing programs, services, and activities concerned with the family, $6.95 from Family Service Association of America 44 East 23rd Street, New York, N.Y. 10010.

Scott, Beverly Ann What Is a System? How Does It Work? Some Strategies for Change, 1977. Available from: American Association of University Women, 2401 Virginia Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037.

Shearer, Derek and Lee Webb (Editors). Second Annual Public Policy Reader. Prepared for the Conference on Alternative State and Local Public Policies. A compilation of the best innovative bills, ordinances and proposals of the past year. Available from: Conference on Alternative States and Local Public Policies, 1901 Q Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Price $5.00.

Yankelovich, Skelly and White, Inc. The General Mills American Family Report, 1974-75. Minneapolis, Minn.: General Mills, Inc. 1975.

Yankelovich, Skelly and White, Inc. The General Mills American Family Report, 1976-77. Minneapolis, Minn.: General Mills, Inc. 1977.

Newsletters:

AHEA Action. Published six times yearly in August, October, December, February, April and May by AHEA. Subscription price for nonmembers of AHEA is $5.00 per year. See Journal of Home Economics entry for more information. Features current news and employment opportunities for professional home economists.

AHEA's Washington Dateline. Published monthly by the American Home Economics Association, Office of Public Affairs, 2010 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C., 20036. Reports status of federal legislation and related-activities of interest to family professionals. Yearly subscription rate $15.00.

Consumer News. United States Office of Consumer Affairs, published the 1st and 15th of each month ot report Federal Government programs for consumers. Yearly subscription rate is $6.00. Order from "Supt. of Documents", Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, CO, 81009.

Teaching Topics. Education and Community Services, American Council of Life Insurance, 1850 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006, Regina Dolan, Editor.
Published periodically during the school year; available free from the above address.

Newsletter (cont.)

Family Economics Review. A quarterly report on research of the Consumer and Food Economics Institute and on information from other sources relating to economic aspects of family living. Primarily for home economics agents and specialists of the Cooperative Extension Service, it is prepared by the Research Staff of the Service and Education Administration (SEA), U.S. Department of Agriculture, Consumer and Food Economics Institute, Federal Building, Hyattsville, MD 20782.

Family News and Features - about family money matters and family life. Community Services of the American Council of Life Insurance and the Health Insurance Institute. 1850 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.
Free newspaper from above address.

KCCD Newsletter. News of interest to Kentucky's Advocates for Children is edited by Mary Langenbrunner, 8-D Erikson Hall, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506.

KHEA Newsletter. Issued Fall and Spring for Kentucky's members of the American Home Economics Association, Edited by Jerri Cockrel, Box 246, New Castle, KY 40050.

On Your Own. Publication of a special program of Continuing Education in Home Economics, University of Alabama. Issued monthly without a charge as a service to Alabama's homemakers with physical handicaps and those professionals working with them; available to professionals in other states and foreign countries upon request: P. O. Box 2967, University of Alabama 35486.

The Washington COFO Memo: A Publication of the Coalition of Family Organizations. American Association of Marriage and Family Counselors, American Home Economics Association, Family Service Association of America, and National Council on Family Relations Publication of the coalition of family organizations to aid in formalizing the already existing, close, working relationship of these organizations on issues of common concern. Mailed free to members of the four organizations, edited by members of the coalition from the four organizations.

Journals and Selected Articles:

Journal of Home Economics. Published in spring, summer, fall and winter by the American Home Economics Association, 2010 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Membership in AHEA is $40.00 per year and includes subscriptions to the Journal of Home Economics and AHEA Action.

Journals and Selected Articles (cont.)

Journal of Marriage and the Family. Published quarterly during months of February, May, August and November by the National Council on Family Relations, the Journal is medium for presentation of theory, research and critical discussion of materials related to marriage and family. Membership in NCFR is $36.00 per year and includes subscriptions to the Journal of M & F, The Family Coordinator. To join, contact NCFR, 1219 University Avenue, S.E., Minneapolis, Minn., 55414.

Marlowe, Howard, "How to Affect Legislation Before it Affects You", The Grantsmanship Center NEWS, Jan-Feb, 1978 pp. 23-30 and 47-54. Reprints available from the Grantsmanship Center, 1015 West Olympic Boulevard, Los Angeles, CA, 90015; 1-10 copies-$1.00 each; 11-25 copies-.85 cents each; 26-100 copies-.75 cents each; 101 copies or more-.65 cents each.

Forum. "International Year of the Child: Who's Responsbile for Children and Families?" Spring/Summer 1979. Available from J. C. Penney Company, Inc. Consumer Affairs Department, 1301 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10019.

Robinson, Rosetta. "Public Policy at the Grass Roots", Journal of Home Economics, September, 1976, pp. 21-23. Explores AHEA's commitment to assisting in the determination of public policy.

"Saving the Family: Special Report", Newsweek, May 15, 1978. Examination, assessment of today's family, studies of the impact of government policy and of television, reports on the black family and the new family therapy, a piece on the commune as an alternate family and vignettes of six representative families.

The Family Coordinator. See Journal of Marriage and the Family entry.

Schwartz, Peter, P. J. Teige and W. W. Harman, "In Search of Tomorrow's Crisis", The Futurist, October 1977, pp. 269-278. Problems that will become critical in the years ahead as identified by these social researchers. Includes a list of 41 crises of tomorrow and the trends with which they are associated.

Unpublished References:

Watts, Jacqueline. Political Participation Among Kentucky Home Economists. Master's thesis: University of Kentucky College of Home Economics, Department of Family Studies, 1978. Available in Coody Resource Center, Funkhouser Building, U.K.

Audio-visual Materials:

The Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions. The Family in a Changing Society: A series of tapes concerning various aspects

Audio-visual Materials (cont.)

of family life. Titles include: "Should There Be National Family Policy", "Ethnic Diversity, Individual Rights, and Family Policy", "The Evolution of Sex and the Future of the Family", "Socialization, Sex Roles, and the Family", "Child Abuse: Our National Tragedy", "The Modern Family: Expectation and Reality", "Planning for a Caring Society". Available from: The Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, Box 4446, Santa Barbara, California 93103.

"The Home Economist in Public Affairs". (Prepared by Ohio Home Economics Association) A 30-minute videotape that shows the involvement of home economics professionals and students in legislation and public policy. Contact Susan B. Ruffing, Executive Secretary, Ohio Home Economics Association, 248 North Ardmore Road, Columbus, Ohio 43209. Rental is $5.00 for one week to ten days use.